EXPLORING THE ROLE OF EMPLOYEE ENTITLEMENT IN COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIOUR

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DECLARATION

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ABSTRACT

The prevalence and considerable financial costs associated with counterproductive work behaviours warrants a deeper understanding of these behaviours. Counterproductive work behaviours are employee behaviours that deliberately undermine the interests and goals of the organisation. These behaviours manifest in many forms with examples including bullying, sexual harassment, cyberloafing, tardiness, fraud, absenteeism, and substance abuse. These days, human resources practitioners and business leaders often report high levels of entitlement attitudes among employees, which may influence employees' decision to engage in counterproductive behaviours.

Employee entitlement is a relatively new construct in academic literature and therefore lacking consistent conceptualisation and measurement. In this study, employee entitlement is defined as excessive self-regard connected to a belief in the automatic right to privileged or preferential treatment at work regardless of performance. Due to the reported negative consequences of employee entitlement and the lack of empirical work on this topic, an exploration of the construct and its impact on the psychological contract was warranted in the South African context. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to explore the role of employee entitlement in counterproductive work behaviours and its implication on the psychological contract. More specifically, this study explored the inclusion of the employee entitlement construct in the Bordia, Restubog and Tang's (2008) psychological contract breach, revenge and counterproductive work behaviours model.

This study employed an ex-post facto correlation design, and data were collected from the employees of a higher education institution in South Africa. Respondents were invited to complete an online questionnaire. The final sample consisted of 308 employees. Partial least squares structural modelling (PLS) was used as the primary statistical analysis technique to evaluate the relationships between the latent constructs. The findings of this study show that there is a positive and significant relationship between psychological contract breach, revenge and counterproductive work behaviours. In addition, revenge was found to mediate the relationship between employee entitlement and counterproductive work behaviours. However, the validation of the employee entitlement measurement model did return less than acceptable model fit, suggesting the need for further validation of the measure. Moreover, insights are provided on how managers and practitioners can more effectively manage workplace situations which foster perceptions of employee entitlement, the management of the psychological contract and as a result reduce employees' engagement in counterproductive work behaviours.

OPSOMMING

Die hoë voorkoms en aansienlike finansiële koste van teenproduktiewe werksgedrag vereis ’n deegliker begrip van hierdie verskynsel. Teenproduktiewe werksgedrag is optrede deur werknemers wat die belange en doelwitte van die organisasie opsetlik ondergrawe. Hierdie gedrag neem verskeie vorme aan, byvoorbeeld bullebakkery, seksuele teistering, kuberleeglêery, traagheid, bedrog, afwesigheid en middelmisbruik. Eiegeregtigheid onder personeel, waaroor menslikehulpbronbestuurders en sakeleiers deesdae dikwels kla, kan daartoe bydra dat ’n werknemer besluit om teenproduktiewe gedrag by die werkplek te openbaar.

Eiegeregtigheid onder personeel is ’n betreklik nuwe konstruk in die akademiese literatuur en is dus nog nie konsekwent gekonseptualiseer en gemeet nie. Vir die doel van hierdie studie word dit verstaan as oordrewe selfagting onder personeel, tesame met ’n aanspraak op outomatiese bevoorregting of voorkeurbehandeling by die werk, ongeag prestasie. Weens die aangemelde negatiewe gevolge van eiegeregtigheid in die werkerskorps, sowel as die tekort aan empiriese werk oor die onderwerp, was ’n studie van dié konstruk en die impak daarvan op die sielkundige kontrak in Suid-Afrikaanse verband geregverdig. Die doel van hierdie navorsing was dus om ondersoek in te stel na die rol van eiegeregtigheid onder personeel in teenproduktiewe werksgedrag, en die implikasies daarvan vir die sielkundige kontrak. In die besonder het die studie gekonsentreer op die insluiting van die konstruk van eiegeregtigheid onder personeel by Bordia, Restubog en Tang (2008) se model van sielkundigekontrakbreuk, wraak en teenproduktiewe werksgedrag.

Die studie het van ’n *ex post facto*-korrelasieontwerp gebruik gemaak en data is onder die werknemers van ’n Suid-Afrikaanse hoëronderwysinstelling ingesamel. Respondente is genooi om ’n aanlyn vraelys in te vul. Die finale steekproef het uit 308 werknemers bestaan. Gedeeltelike kleinstekwadrate- strukturele modellering (“PLS”) is as primêre statistiese ontledingstegniek gebruik om die verwantskappe tussen die onderliggende konstrukte te bepaal. Die bevindinge van die studie dui op ’n positiewe en beduidende verband tussen sielkundigekontrakbreuk, wraak en teenproduktiewe werksgedrag. Daarbenewens is daar bevind dat wraak die verband tussen eiegeregtigheid onder personeel en teenproduktiewe werksgedrag bemiddel. Tog lewer die maatstaf van eiegeregtigheid onder personeel ’n onaanvaarbare modelpassing op, wat op die behoefte aan verdere stawing dui. Boonop bied die studie insigte oor hoe bestuurders en praktisyns werkplekomstandighede doeltreffender kan hanteer om opvattings van eiegeregtigheid onder personeel teen te werk, die sielkundige kontrak beter te bestuur, en sodoende werknemers se deelname aan teenproduktiewe gedrag te verminder.

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CHAPTER 1

1.1 Introduction

South Africa's tumultuous political, economic and social-economic situation has led to a society which is persistently challenged by increasingly high unemployment, crime, and rapid population growth. Additionally, the poverty gap exacerbated by increasing income inequality, is fast becoming larger. To alleviate these challenges, it is imperative that the country indicates sustainable economic growth (World Bank Annual Report, 2016). Economic growth is only possible if the factors of production (land, human resources, capital and entrepreneurship) are optimally utilised in producing products and services which induce economic profits and create shareholder value. This objective is achieved when organisations effectively transform limited factors of production into need-satisfying products and services (Mohr & Fourie, 2014).

Organisations exist within a social context and the relationship between organisations and society is interdependent. This interdependent relationship is evident in the sense that society provides organisations with the necessary human resources needed to transform the scarce factors of production in a coordinated fashion into products and services that satisfy society's needs. These products and services, in turn, contribute to profitable and sustainable organisations and in return for these profits, organisations accept the responsibility to serve the interests of society. Some of the ways in which the organisation serves society is through providing employment opportunities, technological advancement, choices of products and services, providing education (e.g. schools and universities), healthcare services (e.g. hospitals) as well as ensuring the preservation of natural resources on which the organisation relies.

Most people of working age are obliged to undertake some form of work to make a living and fulfil their basic needs. One way of earning a living is by working for an organisation. The relationship is thus symbiotic; people need organisations to earn a living and in turn, organisations require employees to engage in prosocial organisational behaviours to ensure the attainment of the organisation's goals. In addition, organisations need to coordinate their employees (e.g., human capital or labour) and other factors of production in such a way that the desired organisational goals are achieved. To assist in achieving these goals, organisations require the services of the industrial psychologist. The role of the industrial psychologists within organisations is to enhance employee well-being and the performance of the organisation (Schultz & Schultz, 1994). To fulfil this role, industrial psychologists are mandated to describe, explain, predict and influence work behaviour (Riggio, 2013). To this end, industrial psychologists require an in-depth, scientific understanding of the employee, the

work environment and employee behaviours, to maximise the performance of employees which in turn, enhances the performance of the organisation.

In an attempt to maximise employee performance, industrial psychologists are thus interested in the influence of factors that enhance and diminish job performance. Job performance is conceptualised as a constellation of behaviours rather than outcomes (Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, & Sager, 1993). A review of earlier job performance models indicates that job performance encompasses three distinct group of behaviours namely, task performance, organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) and counterproductive work behaviour (CWB). Task performance relates to the proficiency with which employees perform their core task-related activities (Borman, Bryant, & Dorio, 2010). Organisational citizenship behaviour is described as voluntary helpful employee behaviours which enhance organisational functioning (Lee & Allen, 2002), whereas counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) is pervasive and detrimental to the performance and well-being of both the employee and organisation (Spector & Fox, 2002). As a result of its prevalence and costly implications to organisations (Bennett & Robinson, 2000), CWB as a component of job performance, is closely examined in the current study.

A large proportion of the workforce engages in some form of CWB resulting in costly and pervasive consequences that threaten the well-being of the organisation and its stakeholders (Vardi & Wiener, 1996). As such, CWBs can negatively influence the performance of employees and thus the success of the organisation. Given that maximising employee performance forms part of the industrial psychologists' role in an organisation, a bone fide understanding of the nomological network of CWB is necessary to reduce these harmful behaviours. In other words, a thorough understanding of the intricacies of employee behaviour and the individual and organisational factors that are likely to inform CWBs are required. Only by fully understanding the nomological network are industrial psychologists and Human Resource (HR) practitioners able to develop effective interventions aimed at reducing CWBs and the resultant damaging consequences.

CWB is described as voluntary acts conducted by employees with the intention of harming the organisation or its members (Spector & Fox, 2002). In a similar vein, Sackett (2002) defined CWBs as any intentional behaviour conducted by employees which contradicts the interests of the organisation. Put differently, CWBs may be characteristic of acts that disregard societal and organisational norms and values (Collins & Griffin, 1998). These voluntary behaviours are intentionally harmful to the organisation and its employees and exclude accidental or unconscious acts (Ones & Viswesvaran, 2003). CWB not only influences the performance and well-being of the employee engaging in CWB but also colleagues or customers interacting

with an employee engaging in CWB, as well as the organisation in which CWB is taking place (Whelpley & McDaniel, 2016).

CWBs can vary in intensity, significance, and whether the behaviours are directed towards colleagues, clients or the organisation. Furthermore, CWB can manifest as production deviance (e.g., working intentionally slow, taking unauthorised breaks, or wasting organisational resources), property deviance (e.g., deliberately damaging equipment or stealing from the organisation), political deviance (e.g., demonstrating favouritism, spreading rumours or gossiping), as well as interpersonal deviance (e.g., sexual harassment, or verbal abuse) (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Collins and Griffin (1998) concur with this assertion and posit that CWB varies in seriousness, from petty stealing to violent assault and harassment. Some other less serious forms of CWBs that are prevalent in contemporary organisations include; leaving work early, tardiness, daydreaming, undue absence, excessive use of the internet for personal use during working hours and taking extended breaks. More serious acts include; intentionally ignoring the safety procedures, misleading customers or sabotaging production processes. Extant empirical studies have found CWBs to be multidimensional and that interrelationship exists between these forms of behaviours (Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Marcus & Schuler, 2004; Spector et al., 2006). For instance, Bennett and Robinson (2000) identified a two-factor model of CWB comprising interpersonal deviance (verbal abuse, sexual harassment, aggressive behaviours towards colleagues) and organisational deviance (sabotaging equipment, stealing from the company, wasting organisational resources) and found a positive association between the two groups of behaviours. From a broad perspective, all forms of CWB share a common hallmark which defies the legitimate interests of the organisation and threatens the well-being of its members and/or the organisation (Sackett & DeVore, 2001)

According to the literature, individual attributes and environmental conditions (e.g., organisational or contextual characteristics) are the core antecedents of CWBs (Lau, Au, & Ho, 2003; Martinko, Gundlach, & Douglas, 2002; Spector & Fox, 2002; Vardi & Wiener, 1996). Organisational characteristics may include organisational control systems such as performance appraisal, monitoring, evaluation and disciplinary procedures (Vardi & Wiener, 1996); perceived justice, organisational constraints, role stressors (e.g., ambiguous job role), the implicit psychological contract (Spector & Fox, 2002) and contextual factors such as the current economic conditions (e.g., high unemployment) (Lau et al., 2003).

Several models of CWB have been proposed (Marcus & Schuler, 2004; Martinko et al., 2002; Spector & Fox, 2002). One model is the emotion-centred model (Spector & Fox, 2002), which explains how employees' perception of an organisational situation (e.g. perceived injustice) results in a cognitive evaluation of the condition which triggers an emotional reaction (e.g.,

anger and frustration), and these feelings may motivate engagement in CWBs. Emotional reactions such as frustration and anger are influenced by the individual's unique attributes. These attributes are also referred to as individual differences (Spector & Fox, 2002). Individual differences (e.g., personality traits) are regarded as significant predictors of CWB and vary from person to person and thus influence how people think, feel and act.

The Big Five personality traits (e.g., conscientiousness, openness to experience, extraversion, neuroticism and agreeableness) comprising the five-factor model (FFM; McCrae & Costa, 1999) as well as the pathological Dark Triad traits (e.g., narcissistic, Machiavellian, and psychopathic) have been examined as predictors of CWBs (Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, & Barrick, 2004; Michalak & Kiffin-Petersen, 2010). An individual difference variable, which is distinguished from these traits but also influences the self-concept and interpersonal functioning, is the concept of psychological entitlement. Due to its implications in the workplace, psychological entitlement has recently emerged as a construct of interest among organisational scholars. To emphasise the employment context, psychological entitlement will be referred to as *employee entitlement* from this point forward. Broadly speaking, employee entitlement refers to an individual's belief that they deserve special privileges or rewards, without regard to their performance and inputs (Harvey & Martinko, 2009). In this study, it is argued that employee entitlement as an individual difference may potentially influence CWBs.

Interest in employee entitlement as a variable has gained momentum among organisational scholars because of the recent increase in anecdotal reports on entitlement. A LexisNexis search of major newspapers, of the term "sense of entitlement", found 400 cases and 996 cases in 2003 and 2007 respectively (Harvey & Martinko, 2009). In 2010, a Factiva search of news articles with the term "sense of entitlement" returned 1,553 articles (Brouer, Wallace, & Harvey, 2011). This increased interest of entitlement is frequently attributed to the younger generations' expectations of praise and success without regard to performance levels (Fisk, 2010; Harvey & Dasborough, 2015; Laird, Harvey, & Lancaster, 2015; Tomlinson, 2013). Although these anecdotal reports indicate increased interest in entitlement observed in the US, this may also be the case in South Africa. Organisational scholars have also observed that entitlement attitudes and behaviours are increasingly becoming prevalent in contemporary organisations (Brouer et al., 2011; Fisk, 2010; Harvey & Martinko, 2009; Harvey & Harris, 2010). According to extant research, it appears that entitlement perceptions play a crucial part in the formation and appraisal of employees' expectations (Tomlinson, 2013). As such, a thorough understanding of the entitlement nomological network in the South African context is warranted.

Since the entitlement construct is in its infancy (Westerlaken, Jordan, & Ramsay, 2011), extant research is varied and organisational scholars are yet to develop a universal definition. The

entitlement concept is rooted in personality psychology (Campbell, Bonacci, Shelton, Exline, & Bushman, 2004) and is closely aligned to narcissism (Raskin & Terry, 1988). Various definitions, construct names, and theoretical frameworks relating to entitlement in the workplace, have been proposed. Campbell et al. (2004) refer to the construct as psychological entitlement and defined it as ‘‘a stable and pervasive sense that one deserves more and is entitled to more than others’’ (p. 31). Entitlement in the workplace is also labelled as workplace entitlement and defined as a ‘‘desire for preferential treatment and rewards without regard to performance levels’’ (Harvey & Martinko, 2009, p.461). Harvey and Harris (2010) defined entitlement as “a stable tendency toward highly favourable self-perceptions and a tendency to feel deserving of high levels of praise and reward, regardless of actual performance levels” (p.1640). Similarly, Fisk (2010) posits that excessive entitlement in the workplace is the result of a belief that one’s inputs are more superior and better than the inputs of others and therefore deserve to be acknowledged and rewarded. More recently, the construct has been termed “employee entitlement” and described as “an excessive self-regard linked to a belief in the automatic right to privileged treatment at work” (Jordan, Ramsay, & Westerlaken, 2016, p.2).

The common gist of these definitions is that entitled employees believe that they deserve preferential treatment and reward due to their own self-righteous evaluation and favourable self-regard, regardless of their contributions or performance levels. In this study, the term employee entitlement and psychological entitlement are used interchangeably to refer to employees’ unreasonable expectations of privileged treatment and rewards regardless of contributions or performance levels. Furthermore, employee entitlement differs from other conceptualisation of entitlement such as economic entitlement, equity entitlement and legitimate entitlement (Harvey & Dasborough, 2015). Jordan et al.’s (2016) definition which succinctly encompasses the essence of the aforementioned definitions will inform this study. The authors define excessive entitlement as one’s belief that favourable treatment in the workplace is an automatic right regardless of inputs and performance.

Besides the various definitions and construct names, scholars also have varied conceptualisations of entitlement. On the one hand, entitlement has been conceptualised as a trait, either as a stand-alone personality trait (Campbell et al., 2004) or as a component of narcissism (Raskin & Terry, 1988). On the other hand, entitlement has been conceptualised as having latent potential which can emerge due to specific conditions (Fisk, 2010; Jordan et al., 2016). For instance, organisations that consistently remunerate employees on a non-contingent basis and provide overly lenient performance feedback absolve employees from high-performance inputs and therefore promote opportunities for entitlement attitudes to emerge (Fisk, 2010; Naumann, Minsky, & Sturman, 2002). Likewise, organisations that provide blanket annual salary increases which fail to distinguish between under-, mediocre-

or exceptional performances also provide fertile ground for entitlement attitudes to develop and flourish. Tett and Guterman's (2000) trait activation theory can be used to explain and interpret this phenomenon. The theory proposes that personality traits can emerge in reaction to relevant situational cues. Stated differently, the situation or environment specifically provides the opportunity for the activation and expression of entitlement traits. Consequently, certain environments are more conducive for entitlement to manifest. For the purposes of this research, employee entitlement is conceptualised as a situationally activated trait which implies that when employees interact with specific environmental cues, employee entitlement is triggered. Theoretically, entitled individuals have a distorted perception of deservingness (Harvey & Martinko, 2009). Instead of objectively evaluating their contributions and basing their expectations accordingly, entitled individuals habitually expect special treatment, and high levels of rewards, irrespective of their inputs (Brouer et al., 2011).

Heightened employee entitlement perceptions have significant consequences for both management and employees. Organisational scholars have proposed noteworthy relationships between entitlement and adverse workplace outcomes. Examples include. increased aggressive behaviours (Campbell et al., 2004), conflict with supervisors (Harvey & Martinko, 2009), and co-worker abuse (Harvey & Harris, 2010). Additionally, it is reported that in comparison to less entitled co-workers in the same department, entitled employees tend to perceive their supervisor as abusive and subsequently demonstrate deviant behaviours as retaliation against the perceived abuse (Harvey, Harris, Gillis, & Martinko, 2014). More recently, a significant correlation was reported between psychological entitlement and CWB with employees' perception of organisational justice and moral disengagement mediating this relationship (Lee, Schwarz, Newman, & Legood, 2017). Overall, these studies demonstrate significant relationships between employee entitlement and CWBs.

Another implication of employee entitlement is its role in the psychological contract (Naumann et al., 2002). Entitled employees believe that they have an automatic right to favourable outcomes in the employment exchange relationship. This sets the stage for a subjectively perceived breach and violation of the psychological contract by the organisation. Psychological contract violations have been reported to have detrimental consequences for both the employee and organisation. Several studies have found psychological contract violation to motivate engagement in CWBs (Bordia, Restubog, & Tang, 2008; Chao, Cheung, & Wu, 2011; Jensen, Opland, & Ryan, 2010). On this basis, the importance of understanding employees' expectations as part of the psychological contract as well as employees' entitlement perceptions is warranted.

To summarise, CWB causes large potential losses and poses serious economic risks to organisations. Furthermore, CWB does not only affect the organisation but also the well-being

and performance of its members. As a result, research examining the link between entitlement and CWBs may be of considerable interests to both practitioners and organisational scholars. Despite the rise of entitlement perceptions in contemporary organisations and its associated negative consequences, there is a scarcity of research exploring this potentially destructive individual difference in the South African context. A clearer understanding of the employee entitlement nomological network is vital to mitigate the negative consequences of CWBs.

Consistent with this reasoning, this investigation is guided by the research initiating question: "How does employee entitlement influence CWB?" Therefore, this study seeks to enhance understanding of the entitlement–CWB relationship in the South African context. Furthermore, an examination of how situational conditions influence employee perceptions (e.g. employee entitlement, breach, and violation of the psychological contract), and subsequently motivate employees to engage in CWBs is also embarked upon.

The primary objective of this study is to explore employee entitlement and its influence on CWB in a South African context. More specifically, this study investigates how employee entitlement influences CWB when a breach of the psychological contract is perceived.

In attempting to answer the research initiating the question, the following literature specific objectives have been set:

- To identify the various conceptualisations of employee entitlement
- To identify the theoretical frameworks which inform employee entitlement
- To identify the current conceptualisations of the relationship between employee entitlement and counterproductive work behaviour.

In addition to the literature specific objectives, the following objectives to empirically evaluate employee entitlement in the employee entitlement-CWB relationship have been set:

- To develop a structural model derived from the literature, which explains the influence of employees' entitlement perceptions on CWB.
- To empirically assess the structural model depicting the relationships between the relevant latent variables.
- To evaluate the significance of the hypothesised paths in the model.

1.2 Structure of the thesis

The structure of the thesis is organised as follows. Chapter 1 introduced the research study and presented an overview of the CWB and employee entitlement constructs. Chapter 2 follows with a literature study of CWB and employee entitlement including other related factors that may have a bearing on the nomological network. Included in the review are the conceptualisation, underlying theoretical frameworks and measurement instruments used to

operationalise each variable. The review concludes with a section exploring the relationships between the various variables followed by the formulation of the substantive and statistical hypotheses which will provide the foundation for the reporting of the results. Chapter 3 then describes the procedures and methods which were used to empirically test the hypotheses. These analytical procedures and the results obtained from them are discussed in Chapter 4. Finally, the thesis concludes with a discussion of the results, limitations of the study, recommendations for future research and practical managerial implications in Chapter 5.

1.3 Chapter summary

Recently, there has been an increased interest in entitlement perceptions in the workplace. This investigation seeks to explore employee entitlement perceptions in a South African context, its implications on the psychological contract and its role in counterproductive work behaviours. The next chapter provides a literature review on counterproductive work behaviours, employee entitlement and other related constructs aimed at providing context and an understanding of the literature's contribution to the research problem being studied.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

One of the salient roles of the industrial psychologists and HR practitioners is to effectively influence employee performance in a manner which enhances organisational success. Since employee job performance is a key criterion for organisational success, industrial psychologists and HR practitioners must be able to recognise and understand the individual and situational characteristics that determine performance. In addition, a thorough understanding of how these characteristics interact to influence performance is further required. Job performance encompasses two major dimensions, namely task performance and contextual behaviours (e.g., OCB and CWB) (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Task performance refers to obligatory behaviours which are required as part of the job, whereas contextual behaviours are discretionary. Contextual behaviours are defined as behaviours which influences the social and psychological core of the organisation. (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). OCB is described as the discretionary behaviours demonstrated by employees which promotes organisational effectiveness and success (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Conversely, CWBs refers to purposeful employee behaviours which are harmful to the organisation and the individuals within the organisation (Robbins & Coulter, 2007). Due to the negative consequences associated with CWB, this study examines why and how employees engage in CWBs and the effect employees' entitlement perceptions have on CWBs.

2.2 Conceptualisation of counterproductive work behaviour

The prevalence and considerable financial costs (e.g., costs due to sabotage, theft or lost productivity due to tardiness) and social costs (e.g., physical, mental, and psychological injuries, and job dissatisfaction of the victims of interpersonal CWBs) associated with CWBs, prompts a deeper understanding of these behaviours (Robinson & Bennett, 1997). Absenteeism, turnover and workplace violence are some of the forms of CWBs that are known to cost South African organisations millions of rands per year (Robbins, Judge, Odendaal, & Roodt, 2013). Generally, CWBs refer to "intentional behaviour on the part of an organization member viewed by the organization as contrary to its legitimate interests" (Sackett & DeVore, 2001, p. 145). Another definition describes CWB as intentional and discretionary behaviours carried out by employees which conflicts with organisational norms and are detrimental to the organisation and its employees (Robinson & Bennett, 1997). Further examples of CWBs include theft, withdrawal, sabotage, harassment, and substance abuse (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Sackett & DeVore, 2001). Although

accidental, occasional blunders and unintentional employee behaviours may result in detrimental consequences to the wellbeing of the organisation and its members, these behaviours do not form part of the conceptualisation of CWB (Spector & Fox, 2010; Vardi & Wiener, 1996). Robinson and Bennett (1997) asserted that the reference to intentionality in the construct's conceptualisation highlights the purposeful and voluntary nature of CWBs and the exclusion of accidents or behaviours which are beyond one's control. For example, accidents that occur despite following the safety precautions or the inability to adequately perform one's job due to circumstances beyond one's control are not regarded as CWBs.

Over the past two decades, several scholars have investigated, scrutinised and defined the concept of CWB in the workplace. Many of these studies were based on different theoretical perspectives and resulted in various forms of CWBs as well as different construct labels for the same phenomenon. Examples include noncompliant workplace behaviour[1] (Puffer, 1987), interpersonal or workplace aggression[2] (Neuman & Baron, 1998), antisocial behaviour (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997), workplace deviance[3] (Robinson & Bennett, 1995), organisational retaliation behaviours[4] (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), workplace incivility[5] (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), revenge[6] (Bies, Tripp, & Kramer, 1997), bullying[7] (Salin, 2003), cyberloafing[8] (Lim, 2002), and more recently, cyber-aggression[9] (Weatherbee & Kelloway, 2006) and insidious workplace behaviour[10] (Edwards & Greenberg, 2010). Despite the different forms and related terms, all refer to a wide range of interpersonally aggressive and hostile workplace behaviours including being intentionally argumentative, bullying, ignoring or threatening others at work, destroying company or employee property, wasting resources, theft, deliberately withholding information and effort, or withdrawal (e.g., sick leave abuse,

[1] Noncompliant behaviours refer to deliberate and premeditated non-task behaviours which are aimed at breaking organisational rules and regulations (Puffer, 1987).

[2] Workplace aggression is defined as "efforts by individuals to harm others with whom they work, or have worked, or the organizations in which they are presently, or were previously, employed" (Neuman & Baron, 1998, p. 395).

[3] Workplace deviance is defined as "voluntary behaviour that violates significant organizational norms and in doing so threatens the well-being of an organization, its members, or both" (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, p. 556).

[4] Organisational retaliation behaviour refers to adverse reactions to perceived injustice by disgruntled employees which have harmful consequences for the organisation's effective functioning (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997).

[5] Workplace incivility refers to "low-intensity deviant (rude, discourteous) behaviour with ambiguous intent to harm the target in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect (Andersson & Pearson, 1999, p. 457).

[6] Revenge is defined as "an effort by the victim of harm to inflict damage, injury, discomfort, or punishment on the party judged responsible for causing the harm" (Aquino, Tripp, & Bies, 2001, p.53).

[7] Salin (2003) defines bullying as "repeated and persistent negative acts towards one or more individual(s), which involve a perceived power imbalance and create a hostile work environment" (p. 1215).

[8] Cyberloafing occurs when employees use work internet and email for personal use during working hours (Lim, 2002).

[9] Cyber aggression refers to the intentional use of workplace email to express aggression through incivility and hostility or where it is used to create the impression of aggression by a specific focal target (Weatherbee & Kelloway, 2006).

[10] Insidious workplace behaviour refers to several forms of deviant behaviours of low-level severity which are repeated over time with the intent to harm the target. These behaviours are directed towards other individuals and/or the organisation and are often subtle in nature and can go unnoticed if they occur on an isolated basis (Edwards & Greenberg, 2010).

leaving earlier without permission or taking extended breaks). Collectively these types of behaviours are referred to as CWBs (Fox & Spector, 1999).

Collins and Griffin (1998) examined various definitions of CWB and found that almost all the definitions held that CWBs disregarded societal and organisational rules and values. Other scholars describe CWBs as acts that violate the disciplinary code relating to appropriate workplace behaviours, which harm the organisation and its employees (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Similarly, Gruys and Sackett (2003) described CWB as intentional behaviours demonstrated by employees which are contradictory to the organisation's legitimate interests. Equally important to note, CWBs can be demonstrated as either overt or passive acts (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001). Overt acts are explicit, easily observed by others and thus more likely to result in punishment (e.g. intimidation). Consequently, employees are more likely to opt for passive CWBs such as tardiness, unauthorised absenteeism (e.g., calling in ill when not sick) and reduced performance (Fox et al., 2001). The common theme central to the definitions imply that CWBs are intentional, voluntary behaviours carried out by employees which have adverse consequences for the organisation and its members. For the purpose of this study, CWB is defined as voluntary employee behaviours that are intentionally harmful to the organisation (Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Martinko et al., 2002; Spector & Fox, 2002).

As mentioned earlier, the prevalence of CWBs is a costly problem for organisations (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). Organisations are required to cover the financial losses resulting from these destructive behaviours and implement preventative measures as protection from future offences. Besides the financial costs to organisations, CWBs also hurts the individual engaging in the CWBs through poor job performance ratings by managers (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). In addition, victims of CWBs may suffer physical aggression and violence (Whelpley & McDaniel, 2016), reduced life and job satisfaction and/or recurrent anxiety and depression incidents (Bowling & Beehr, 2006). Therefore, CWBs affect the effectiveness and welfare of employees engaging in CWB, the victims of CWB and the efficacy of the organisation (Whelpley & McDaniel, 2016). Due to the realisation of the inescapable costs associated with CWBs, organisational interventions aimed at reducing these behaviours are required. To develop effective interventions, an in-depth understanding of the structures of CWBs are required, which are discussed in the subsequent paragraphs.

2.2.1 Taxonomies and Dimensionality of Counterproductive work behaviour

Due to the lack of a recognised and accepted framework required to investigate CWBs, many earlier studies prior to the early 1980s primarily focused their research on specific types of CWBs, which were regarded as distinct behaviours (Gruys & Sackett, 2003). As a result, the focus was on specific antecedents and approaches relevant to the studied behaviour.

Although these approaches highlighted meaningful relationships between specific antecedents and forms of CWB, there was an appeal to explore CWBs from a more general perspective (Marcus & Schuler, 2004). Hence, several earlier researchers stressed the need for a comprehensive theory of CWB that was inclusive of all the different types of CWBs that could manifest in the workplace (Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Sackett & Devore, 2001).

Developing a comprehensive framework proved a cumbersome task due to the pervasiveness of the various forms of CWBs. In their seminal work, Hollinger and Clark (1982, 1983) developed an extensive list of CWBs which they grouped into two categories namely; property deviance and production deviance. Property deviance involved the misuse of employer assets and referred to behaviours such as theft, damaging employers' property and exploitation of discounts and perks. Production deviance referred to acts that deter job performance such as absenteeism and tardiness and included behaviours that reduce productivity and efficiency such substance abuse and intentionally delivering poor-quality work.

Robinson and Bennett (1995) noted that Hollinger and Clark's (1982, 1983) set of CWBs lacked interpersonal CWBs such as harassment, physical assault and verbal abuse. Consequently, Robinson and Bennett (1995) aimed to expand Hollinger and Clark's framework by conducting a multidimensional scaling study. The overall objective of this study was to propose an integrative comprehensive typology of CWBs, which included harmful behaviours that were directed at the organisation and organisational members as well as the severity of these offences. From their study, a comprehensive typology of CWBs was derived comprising two dimensions. The first dimension which is comparable to Hollinger and Clark's production and property deviance dimension included behaviours directed towards the organisation which the authors referred to as organisational deviance (OD). Included in the first dimension, are behaviours directed towards other organisational members (e.g., gossiping, verbal abuse and harassment), which are referred to as interpersonal deviance (ID) (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). The second dimension included the severity of the transgression ranging from minor (e.g. petty theft such as stealing a pen) to serious offences and even criminal activities (e.g. assault or embezzling money from the organisation). With the two-dimensional solution in mind, Robinson and Bennett (1995) grouped behaviours into four quadrants as illustrated in Figure 2.1.

Organisational

Production Deviance • Leaving early • Taking excessive breaks • Intentionally working slow • Wasting resources	Property Deviance • Sabotaging equipment • Accepting bribes • Overstating hours worked • Stealing from company
Political Deviance • Showing favouritism • Gossiping about colleagues • Blaming others	Personal Aggression • Sexual Harassment • Verbal abuse • Stealing from colleagues • Endangering colleagues

Minor **Serious**

Interpersonal

Figure 2.1. A typology of deviant workplace behaviour. Adapted with permission from "A typology of deviant workplace behaviours: A multidimensional scaling study," by S.L. Robinson and R.J. Bennett, 1995, *Academy of Management Journal, 38*, pp. 555–572. *Note*: *These lists are not exhaustive. Most typical behaviours provided are only for illustrative purposes (Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

The first quadrant is labelled ‘property deviance’ and contains CWBs that are serious and harmful to the organisation (e.g., sabotaging equipment, stealing from the company. The second quadrant is categorised as ‘production deviance’ and refers to relatively minor offences, which still have the potential to harm the organisation (e.g., procrastinating, leaving early, wasting resources). The third quadrant is referred to as ‘political deviance’ and concerns CWBs that are minor but at the same time detrimental to fellow colleagues and workplace morale (e.g., gossiping about co-workers). The fourth quadrant is labelled as ‘personal aggression’ and involves behaviours such as aggression or hostility towards others, which are regarded as serious and interpersonally harmful (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Similarly, Neuman and Baron (1998) defined workplace aggression (also known as interpersonal aggression) as “efforts by individuals to harm others with whom they work, or have worked, or

the organizations in which they are presently, or previously, employed" (p.395). It is important to note that workplace violence is distinguished from workplace aggression (e.g., sexual harassment, verbal abuse), with the former referring to direct instances of physical assault (Neuman & Baron, 1998).

Robinson and Bennett (1995) and Bennett and Robinson's (2000) integrative, comprehensive typology shifted the focus from singular, specific deviant behaviours to a general, broader perspective of CWBs (Robinson & Bennett, 1997). In addition, it empirically validated the work of earlier scholars (Hollinger & Clark, 1982; Wheeler, 1976) and underpin present day CWB studies ranging from cyber loafing (Liberman, Seidman, McKenna, & Buffardi, 2011; Lim, 2002), workplace bullying (Hansen, Hogh, & Persson, 2011; Rayner, 1997), and organisational corruption (Ashforth, Gioia, Robinson, & Treviño, 2008). Despite the significance of Robinson and Bennett's (1995) and Bennett and Robinson's (2000) typology, several authors challenged the typology because it was based on employees' perceptions of similar behaviours using the multidimensional scaling method rather than grouping behaviours based on quantitative covariance using factor analysis (Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Ones & Viswesvaran, 2003; Sackett & DeVore, 2001). In other words, the authors asserted that instead of relying on the perceptions of a group of individuals to highlight the similarities and differences between the CWBs, factor analysis could have been used to statistically identify clusters of interrelated behaviours. Due to this perceived weakness, Gruys and Sackett (2003) investigated the dimensionality of CWBs by focussing on the interrelationships between an extensive range of CWBs. Specifically, the authors wanted to determine the underlying structure of CWBs by examining whether these behaviours may co-occur. For example, when employees engage in one type of CWB are they likely to engage in other forms of CWBs? The authors identified 66 separate counterproductive behaviours that were prevalent in the extant literature and used factor analysis to divide the behaviours into 11 categories, which formed part of their study, including:

1. "Theft and related behaviour (theft of cash or property; giving away of goods or services; misuse of employee discount);

2. Destruction of property (defaces damage or destroys property; sabotage production);

3. Misuse of information (reveal confidential information; falsify records);

4. Misuse of time and resources (waste time, alter time cards, conduct personal business during work hours, use employer's internet for personal communication on social media);

5. Unsafe behaviour (failure to follow safety procedures; failure to learn safety procedures);

6. Poor attendance (unexcused absence or tardiness; misuse sick leave);

7. Poor quality work (intentionally slow or sloppy work);

8. Alcohol use (alcohol use on the job; coming to work under the influence of alcohol);

9. Drug use (possess, use, or sell drugs at work);

10. Inappropriate verbal actions (argue with customers; verbally harass co-employees);

11. Inappropriate physical actions (physically attack co-employees; physical sexual advances toward co-employees)" (Gruys & Sackett, 2003, p.33).

The difficulty of studying deviant behaviour in the workplace from a single behaviour approach is evident from the multitude of CWBs derived by Gruys and Sackett (2003). Furthermore, Gruys and Sackett's (2003) study revealed strong correlations between all the behaviour items and between the 11 behaviour categories. These findings are supported by previous studies which also found positive correlations between CWBs (Ashton, 1998; Gruys, 1999; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). In addition, results showed a strong underlying common factor which reinforced the notion that when an individual engages in one form of CWB, the likelihood that the individual will participate in another form of CWB also escalates. Furthermore, using multidimensional scaling analysis, a two-dimensional solution was indicated. The first dimension was an interpersonal-organisational dimension, which corresponded with Robinson and Bennett's (1995) interpersonal-organisational deviance dimension. The second dimension was a task relevance dimension, which relates to the extent to which the behaviour categories included behaviours that are associated with task-related activities (e.g. misuse of time and resources and poor-quality work. This second dimension, however, differed from Robinson and Bennett's (1995) minor-serious dimension.

More recently, Robinson and Bennett's (1995) typology was challenged because of the strong correlation found between interpersonal deviance (ID) and organisational deviance (OD) (r = .7) (Dalal, 2005). As a result, the authors questioned the meaningfulness of the ID-OD distinction and conducted a meta-analysis of the evidence for and against the separability of ID and OD. Results indicated that despite the strong correlation between ID and OD, these components showed different relationships with key common correlates such as Big Five variables and organisational citizenship behaviours, which therefore reinforced support for the ID-OD distinction.

Equally noteworthy is Sackett and DeVore's (2001) three-tier hierarchical model of CWB. This model encompassed a broad, general overarching CWB construct on top followed by a series of group factors such as the organisational – interpersonal factors, as identified by Robinson and Bennett (1995), and specific types of behaviours such as absence, theft, and substance use at the bottom. This model is illustrated in Figure 2.2.

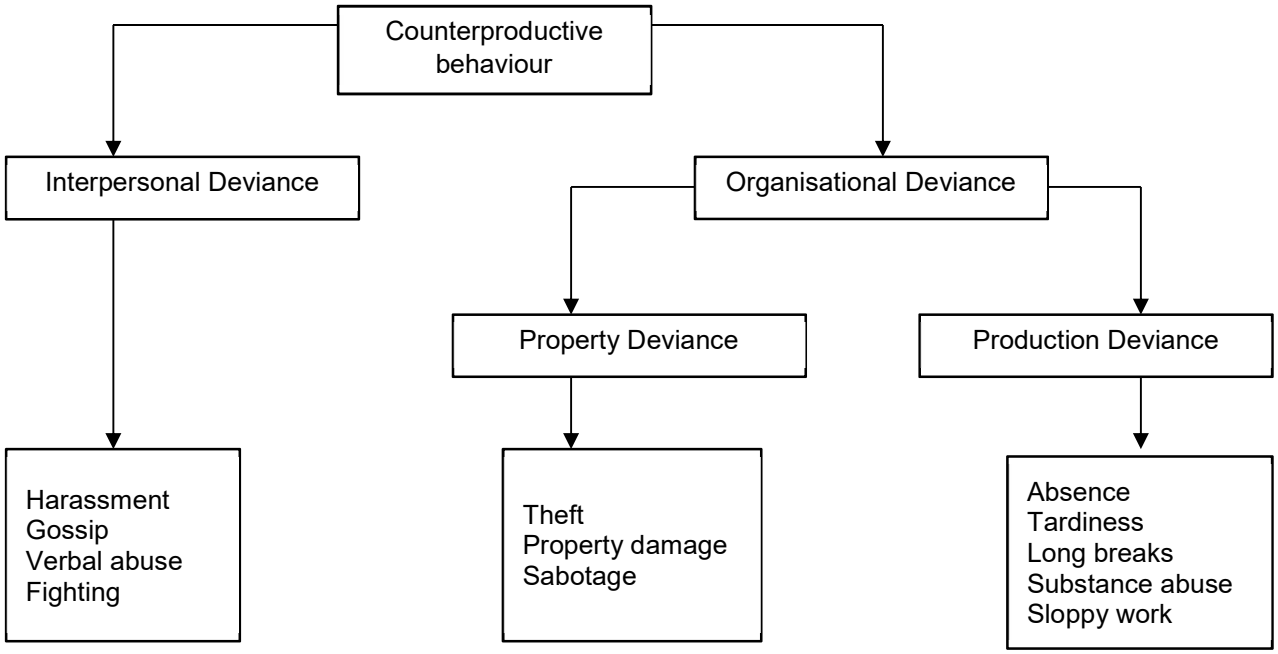

Figure 2.2. A hierarchical model of deviance. Adapted from "Handbook of industrial, work, and organizational psychology" (Vol. 1, pp. 145–164), by P.R. Sackett and C.J. DeVore, 2001. London: Sage

Sackett and DeVore (2001) argued that this model enables researchers and practitioners to focus at different levels of the hierarchy for different purposes. For instance, in personnel selection, when identifying suitable job applicants who will not engage in a wide range of CWBs, the focus would be on the overarching CWB construct, whereas if an intervention is sought for a specific behaviour, the focus will be on the specific type of behaviours.

Recently, Spector et al.(2006) proposed a five-category model of CWB including abuse (CWB-I, counterproductive work behaviours directed towards other organisational members), productive deviance (e.g., acts that harm productivity excluding withdrawal), sabotage (e.g., deliberate destruction of property), theft (e.g., stealing from company), and withdrawal (working less than the required hours). Comparatively, Robinson and Bennett's (1995) production deviance category includes withdrawal behaviours and is therefore regarded as a more extensive typology than that of Spector et al.'s (Rotundo & Spector, 2010). Equally notable was a typology suggested by Kelloway, Francis, Prosser, and Cameron (2010) introducing a different perspective to understanding CWB.

Kelloway et al. (2010) suggested a fourfold classification from the perspective of viewing CWB as a form of protest rather than merely a set of deviant behaviours. According to their model, employees express dissatisfaction or attempt to resolve perceived injustice as a form of protest through CWBs. Examples of CWBs as a form of protest includes theft, sabotage and aggression. One of the proposed dimensions of their protest model is the identity of the target group (e.g., organisation vs. individual), which according to the model must be regarded as

the instigator of the injustice. Furthermore, the model suggests that the perpetrator or individual carrying out the CWBs must have a high level of identification with the victim (e.g., oneself or another individual or group), and a low degree of identification with the target (e.g., the source of injustice). The second proposed dimension of the model is whether the protest is individually or collectively enacted. From these two dimensions, a fourfold classification is derived as illustrated in Figure 2.3. These four quadrants include CWBs enacted by an individual, targeted towards the organisation (e.g., leaving early, working purposefully at a slow pace, sabotaging equipment and less serious theft); collective action targeted towards the organisation (e.g., strikes); individual action targeted towards other individuals (e.g., aggressive behaviours or acts of incivility); and finally, collective action targeted towards an individual (e.g., mobbing or bullying).

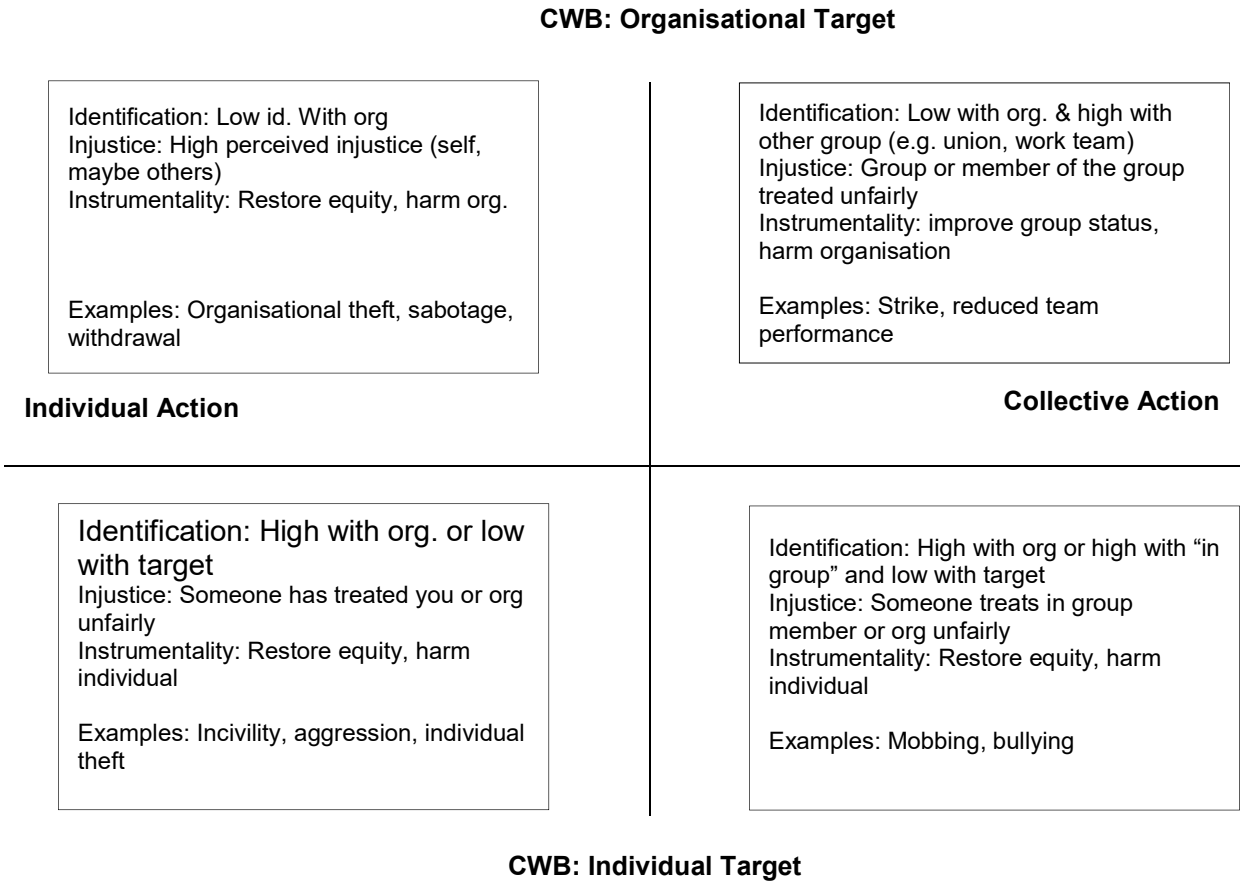

Figure 2.3. Counterproductive work behaviour as protest model. Adapted from "Counterproductive work behaviour as protest", by E.K. Kelloway, L. Francis, M. Prosser, and J.E. Cameron, 2010, *Human Resource Management Review, 20,* pp. 18-25.

To summarise, there have been various conceptualisations of the structure of CWBs. Some models reflect dimensions that distinguish between the target of behaviour and severity of the behaviour, other models suggest a distinction between the target of behaviour and task relevance, a hierarchical model with a broad overarching CWB construct, a five-category

model of CWB and more recently depicting CWB as a form of protest. In extant literature, Bennett and Robinson's (2000) two-factor Interpersonal-Organisational model consistently remains the most prominent and widely used typology (Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007) which will inform this current study. Therefore, in the context of this study CWBs is regarded as behaviours with different levels of severity, which are either directed towards other individuals (ID) or directed towards the organisation (OD). As mentioned earlier, it is the industrial psychologists and HR practitioners' directive to manage CWBs by developing and implementing effective interventions. To develop effective interventions an understanding of the predictors of CWBs are essential and are therefore discussed in the succeeding section.

2.2.2 Antecedents of counterproductive work behaviours

Researchers vary in their perspectives of looking at CWBs (Sackett & DeVore, 2001). To understand the antecedents of CWBs, a firm grasp of researchers' perspective of looking at CWBs, is required. Sackett and DeVore (2001) suggested two dimensions researchers have in their mind's eye when studying CWBs. The first dimension is the level of analysis: whether the focus is on an individual's behaviour or the aggregate behaviour of several individuals. The second dimension refers to the time-frame: whether the focus is on a single behaviour at a specific point in time or a pattern of behaviours over an extended period. In this two-dimensional space, four combinations are created; individual-once off behaviour (i.e., was John absent today?), individual-behaviour over time (i.e., what is John's absenteeism rate over the past year?), aggregate-once off behaviour (i.e., what proportion of the workforce was absent today?) and aggregate-behaviour over time (i.e., what is the average daily absenteeism rate over the past year?).

When studying individual behaviours, the focus would be on individual differences as antecedents to CWB. If these individual differences are seen as stable over time (i.e. personality), the tendency would be to focus on behaviours over a period of time (i.e., investigating whether highly conscientious individuals, tend to consistently have lower levels of absenteeism over time). When the individual differences are viewed as temporary and flexible over time (i.e., mood), there would be a tendency to focus on behaviours in the short term. When studying aggregate behaviours, the focus would be on situational characteristics as antecedents to CWB. If these situational characteristics are relatively stable (i.e., organisational policies regarding the consequences of detected CWB, or control systems, such as the use of security cameras), the tendency would be to focus on behaviours over an extended period. Whereas, if the situational characteristics are viewed as triggering events (i.e. downsizing) the focus would be on behaviours in the short term (Sackett & DeVore, 2001).

When reviewing extant literature relating to the antecedents of CWB, Bennett and Robinson's (2003) also highlighted three notable trends. The first trend encompassed studies in which CWB is conceptualised as a reaction to workplace experiences. A second trend incorporated studies focussing on CWB as a reflection of personality and the third included studies that examined CWB as an adaption to the social context at work. Another perspective is the tendency to study individual specific CWB (i.e. absenteeism, safety, violence, employee theft, sexual harassment) (Sackett & DeVore, 2001). These studies would focus on antecedents relevant to the behaviour.

Considering these varying perspectives, there is an inclination among researchers to either focus solely on individual-level factors such as personality (Castille, Kuyumcu, & Bennett, 2017; Colbert et al., 2004; Judge, LePine, & Rich, 2006; Richards, & Schat, 2011), or solely on situational or organisational level factors such as organisational structure and decision-making authority (Marasi, Bennett, & Budden, 2018), organisational control and power (Lawrence & Robinson, 2007) and boredom (Bruursema, Kessler, & Spector, 2011), as predictors of CWBs. This may be due to personal preferences or disciplinary background or because of the research question being addressed (Sackett & DeVore, 2001).

However, despite these different viewpoints, workplace behaviours like any human behaviour is a result of the interaction between environment and personal factors. The type and frequency of the behaviour is an outcome of both the environmental and personal factors (Rodopman & Spector, 2007). Therefore, the interactions between organisational and individual differences are important to understand CWBs. This integrated approach has been advocated by several scholars (Hershcovis et al., 2007; Lau et al., 2003; Marcus & Schuler, 2004; Martinko et al., 2002; Sackett & DeVore, 2001; Spector & Fox, 2002). Specifically, in their review of CWB literature, Sackett and DeVore (2001) extracted broad main categories of individual and organisational antecedents which were linked to multiple CWBs. They suggested that the main categories of antecedents should incorporate, "(1) personality variables, (2) job characteristics, (3) work group characteristics, (4) organisational, culture, (5) control systems, and (6) injustice."(p. 153).

In a separate study, Spector and Fox (2002) proposed the emotion-centred model of voluntary work behaviours (e.g., CWB and OCB) which also included environmental and personal factors as antecedents of workplace behaviour (Spector & Fox, 2002). According to their model, emotions have an indirect effect on the relationship between environmental conditions and the resultant behaviour. Environmental factors included organisational constraints, role ambiguity, role conflict, interpersonal conflict and reward-punishment contingencies and personal factors included personality variables such as conscientiousness, agreeableness, emotional stability (trait anxiety), trait anger, and empathy.

In a separate study, Martinko et al. (2002) integrated various theoretical perspectives regarding the antecedents of CWB into a causal reasoning model. According to their model, situational and individual difference variables inform a cognitive appraisal process resulting in specific emotions that lead to subsequent CWB. Some of their situational variables include inflexible policies, competitive environment, leadership style, rules and procedures, reward systems, task difficulty, and organisational culture and included individual differences such as negative affectivity, emotional stability, integrity, gender, attribution style, and core self-evaluation, locus of control, self-esteem, generalised self-efficacy and non-neuroticism. This model is illustrated in Figure 2.4.

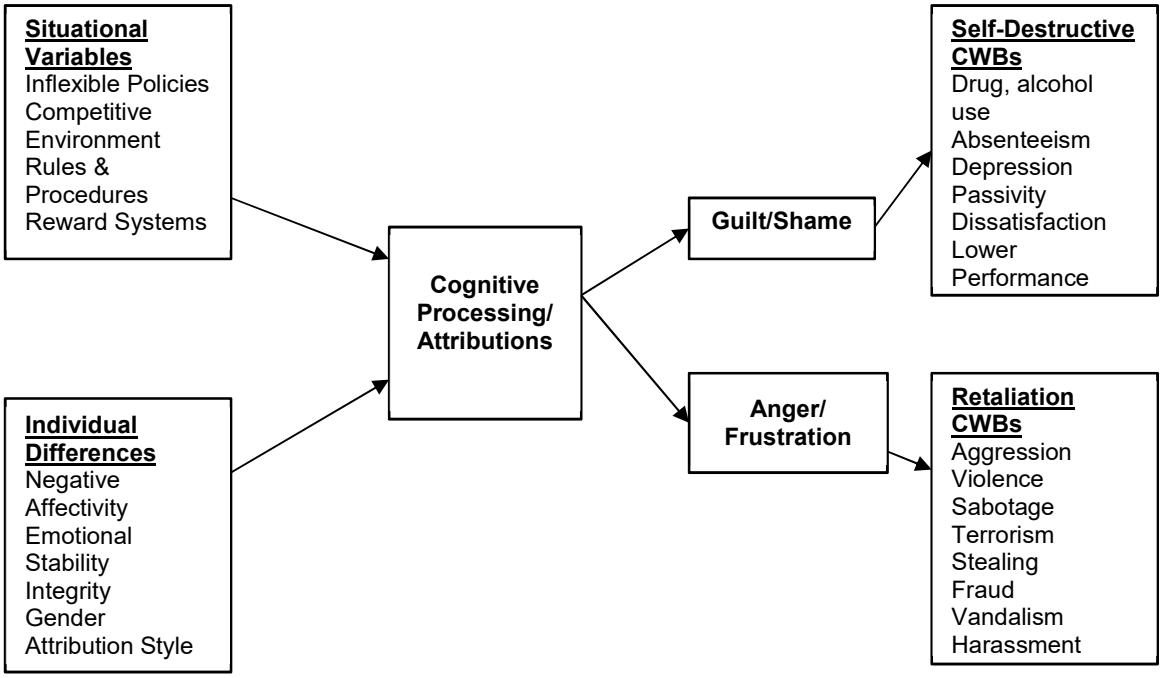

Figure 2.4. A causal reasoning model of counterproductive work behaviour. Adapted from "Toward an integrative theory of counterproductive workplace behavior: A causal reasoning perspective", by M.J. Martinko, M.J. Gundlach and S.C. Douglas, 2002, *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 10,* pp. 36-50.

Moreover, most voluntary work behaviour theorists maintain that when environmental conditions are perceived, this perception leads to emotions and attitudes that in turn lead to behaviour (Rotundo & Spector, 2010). For example, when an undesirable situation or incident is perceived in the environment (i.e., psychological contract breach), individuals will cognitively appraise and evaluate the situation and this evaluation will lead to certain emotions and attitudes, which will influence one's reaction to the environmental condition. Personal attributes of the individual (i.e. personality) will play a role in the perceptions individuals form about the undesirable situation or event and will influence how one would react. As a result, the combination of situational factors and personal factors will determine whether an individual

will engage in CWB or not. In the section that follows, we look at the various theoretical explanations underpinning CWBs.

2.2.3 Theoretical frameworks of counterproductive work behaviour

The extant literature offers different explanations and theories explaining why people engage in CWB. Most models emphasise that both emotions and cognitions are central to understanding CWB. In other words, how people feel and what people think will influence the likelihood of engaging in CWB, the scope and the form of CWB. Some models overlap, but each tap into different facets of human nature and the environment (Rodopman & Spector, 2007).

Affective Event Theory provides a theoretical foundation in explaining why certain individuals will engage in CWB. According to this theory, significant workplace events evoke affective reactions, which in turn, influence attitudes and behaviours (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996; Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, & Bravo, 2007). These significant workplace events (e.g., perceived psychological contract breach) will be evaluated by the individual and based on a cognitive appraisal of the causes, outcomes and contextual information of the event, an emotional response (e.g., frustration, anger, mistrust) to the events will be formed which may subsequently result in the enactment of CWB. The cognitive appraisal of the event entails a two-stage process (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). The first stage begins with an emotional eliciting event, which is simply evaluated as either positive or negative in terms of well-being. Importantly, this initial evaluation will determine the intensity of the emotional reaction. This initial appraisal is followed by the more detailed evaluation of the causes, outcomes, attributions, and coping mechanisms (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Furthermore, Affective Events Theory specifically distinguishes between the immediate affect-driven behavioural reaction (first stage) and more delayed judgement driven behaviours (second stage). Affect driven behaviours follow immediately after the initial evaluation and are not mediated by overall workplace attitude (e.g., satisfaction) but are influenced by either coping or mood management processes or by direct effects of emotions experienced on judgement biases (e.g. self-serving bias) or cognitive processing. Whereas, judgement-driven behaviours are mediated by overall work attitudes (e.g. satisfaction). Therefore, one's attitude influences the decision-making process and result in the judgement-driven behaviours (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

Social exchange theory (SET; Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) is another theory that explains employees' engagement in CWB. SET posits that the relationship between the employer and the employee is initiated and sustained through an exchange process. Employees work in exchange for remuneration, status and recognition (Settoon, Bennett, &

Liden, 1996). This exchange relationship governs the employment relationship and is strengthened when (i) rewards are valued and any costs resulting from the relationship is minimised; (ii) each party trusts each other to fulfil its long-term obligations; (iii) the exchange is regarded as fair when parties adhere to the rules of reciprocity and (iv) each party is psychologically committed to the relationship and demonstrate loyalty, support and concern for the other's wellbeing (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). When the employee perceives that the exchange relationship is imbalanced due to the organisation's failure to provide the expected reciprocal returns, the employee may perceive that the expected exchange relationship has been breached, which may lead to negative behavioural reactions (e.g. CWB) (Knights & Kennedy, 2005; Turnley & Feldman, 1999, 2000).

Robinson and Bennett's (1997) theory of workplace deviance also provides a clarification of why CWBs occur. This theory is illustrated in Figure 2.5 and explained in detail below.

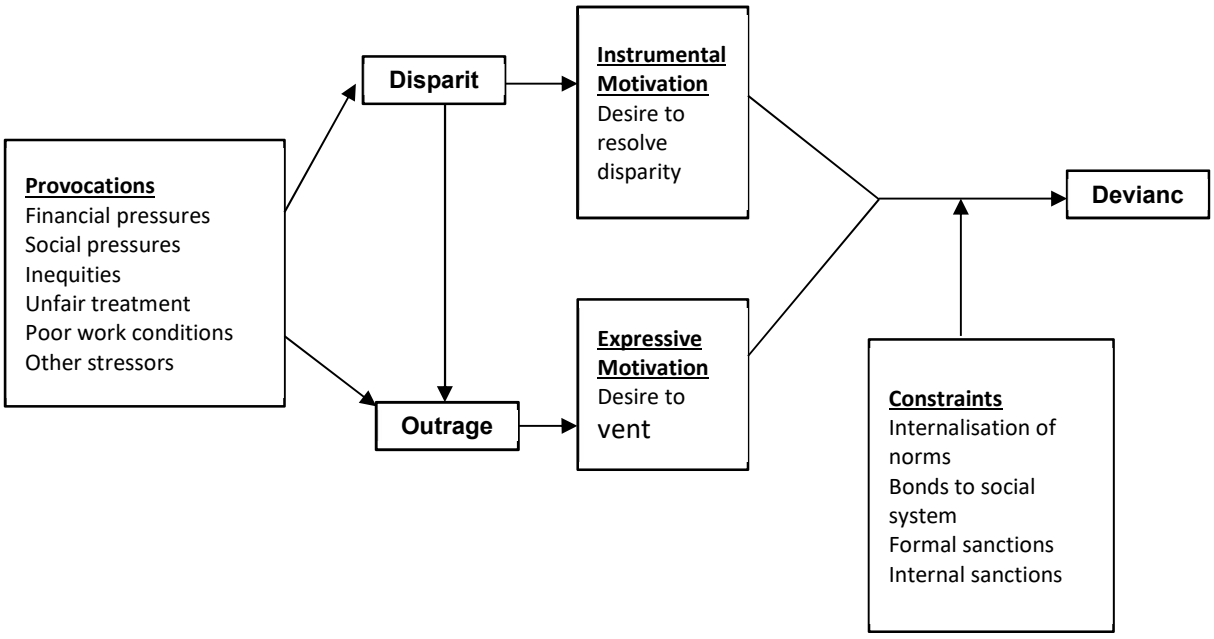

Figure 2.5. A model of workplace deviance. Adapted from "Research on negotiation in organizations" (pp. 3-27), by S.L. Robinson and R.J Bennett, 1997, Greenwhich, CT: JAI.

According to Robinson and Bennett's (1997) theory, a CWB is preceded by some form of provocation (e.g., psychological contract breach). This provocation creates a sense of disparity and/or outrage, which motivates an employee to take some form of action (e.g. vent or act to reduce the disparity). A sense of disparity reflects a cognitive state whereby discrepancies between the current conditions and expected conditions are experienced, whereas a sense of outrage reflects an emotional state characterised by intense anger, frustration and anxiety. Furthermore, the theory posits that a sense of disparity and outrage

creates two distinct motivations that underlie the engagement of CWB. These two motivations are referred to as instrumental and expressive motivation. Instrumental motivation stems from this cognitive state when disparity is experienced, and the individual seeks to reconcile these disparities by changing the situation, or by re-establishing equity through engaging in CWB. For example, an employee may steal money to reduce a perceived pay inequity. Expressive motivation refers to one's need to vent or release feelings of anger, frustration or outrage by engaging in CWBs. For example, an employee who is angered by unfair promotional policies may vent these feelings of outrage by causing harm to the organisation by sabotaging operations or purposefully withholding effort or information (Robinson & Bennett, 1997).

It is important to note, that these two motivations are not mutually exclusive and can occur together as a result of the same provocation. The action stemming from the provocation may thus serve both motivations. For example, an employee experiencing a breach in the psychological contract may experience a sense of disparity and a sense of outrage. To restore equity, this employee may steal from his employer (e.g., instrumental motivation) but may also vent his frustration (e.g., an expressive motivation). Therefore, both motivations may occur together and underlie the same CWB. Furthermore, Robinson and Bennett (1997) further assert that a sense of disparity and outrage stemming from provocation may increase the likelihood of CWB. However, these factors will not necessarily lead to deviant behaviours as these motivations can lead to a wide spectrum of actions ranging from legitimate to deviant.

According to constraint theories (Hirschi, 1969), a provocation will only lead to CWB when constraints inhibiting these behaviours are present. These constraints can be internal or external constraints and fulfil a moderating role between provocations and CWB. An example of an external constraint is the extent to which one will be caught and punished for the CWB. Therefore, the greater the extent to which one will be caught (e.g., surveillance cameras, high monitoring) and the greater the severity of the punishment if one is caught, the less likely one will engage in CWB. Constraints can also be internal to the employee such as the individual's internalised social norms, moral standards, self-control, or religious beliefs. Stated differently, the extent to which an individual will engage in CWB is influenced by their unique internalised standards.

Despite the various theoretical perspectives in the literature, all models emphasise the roles of both cognition and emotions in predicting CWB. Robinson and Bennett's (1997) theory provides a comprehensive framework explaining the causal chain of events between provocation and CWB and incorporates the cognitive, affective and constraint variables which may be present in the relationship between the provocation (e.g., psychological contract breach) and CWB. For this reason, Robinson and Bennett's (1997) theory of workplace deviance will inform this study.

In summary, this study aims to examine the interactive effects of a workplace situation namely a real or imagined breach in the psychological contract and excessive entitlement perceptions on CWBs. To achieve this aim, Robinson and Bennett's (1997) interactive model of determinants of CWB provides a comprehensive framework explaining the causal chain of events between provocation and CWB and will inform this study. As indicated previously, the model suggests that negative perceptions of a work situation (e.g., psychological contract breach) may precede the enactment of CWBs. The mediating mechanisms in this relationship includes an emotional reaction to the perceived psychological contract breach depicted as psychological contract violation, which in turn, leads to revenge cognitions and may, in turn, culminate in CWBs. Furthermore, we propose that this relationship may be enhanced or suppressed by employees' individual-level factors namely self-control and employee entitlement. Employee entitlement has been conceptually proposed to moderate the relationship between PCB and CWB (Naumann et al., 2002) but has, according to the literature, not been empirically tested. Therefore, this study will empirically test employee entitlement's role in the PCB-CWB relationship. In the section that follows, employee entitlement as a situationally activated trait will be examined in detail.

2.3 Conceptualisation of Employee Entitlement

Generally speaking, the word entitlement signifies the rights or benefits a person is legally entitled to as a result of legislation or a contract or unrealistic claims to favourable outcomes (the latter referring to employee entitlement). Entitlement is displayed in various domains of life as either consumer entitlement (Fisk & Neville, 2011), academic entitlement (Miller, 2013) or religious entitlement (Cavina, 2015). To this end, the concept of entitlement has a noteworthy history in several disciplines namely philosophy, law, political science, anthropology and marketing disciplines. Despite its prevalence, the meaning of entitlement varies across disciplines. A multidisciplinary examination of the entitlement construct revealed that not only is the conceptualisation of entitlement unique to each field but also that each discipline relies on its own exclusive set of assumptions when examining the entitlement construct (Naumann et al., 2002).

From a legal perspective, entitlement is regarded as something owing by law which cannot be taken away without a legal justification (Black, 1990). In the clinical psychology literature, entitlement is defined as "those rights which one feels justified in bestowing upon oneself" (Meyer, 1991, p. 223). Whereas, in anthropology, endangered indigenous people are believed to be entitled to political power (Carroll, 1994). Despite the diverse conceptualisations of entitlement in each discipline, there is a consensus that entitlement relates to a person's perceived deservingness. In other words, what a person believes he or she deserves and is entitled to (Naumann et al., 2002). In the workplace, employee entitlement generally refers to

an individual's belief that he/she deserves preferential privileges or reward at work without regard to the level of performance (Harvey & Martinko, 2009).

In light of the reported prevalence of entitlement perceptions in the workplace and its resultant negative workplace outcomes including aggressive behaviours (Campbell et al., 2004), conflict with supervisors (Harvey & Martinko, 2009) and co-worker abuse by entitled individuals (Harvey & Harris, 2010; Harvey et al., 2014), employee entitlement has been added as a domain of interest in the organisational sciences. As a scientific construct, employee entitlement is still in its infancy and literature on employee entitlement in organisational psychology is scarce (Campbell et al., 2004; Harvey & Martinko, 2009). In particular, the nomological network of employee entitlement has received a minimal theoretical examination by organisational scholars (Harvey & Martinko, 2009). To guide and promote research interest in the construct, a degree of consensus must be reached on the construct's definition (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007; Tomlinson, 2013). Although many scholars generally agree that employee entitlement refers to an individual's belief that he or she deserves preferential privileges or reward, an extensive review of the employee entitlement literature shows varying and inconsistent construct definitions (Jordan et al., 2016). The following paragraphs explore different conceptualisations of employee entitlement and conclude with a definition that will inform the present study.

2.3.1 Entitlement as a component of narcissism

In extant literature, employee entitlement in the workplace is either studied as a component of narcissism[11] or as a standalone construct. The Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI; Raskin & Hall, 1979) which is the widely used measure of narcissism and based on the clinical criteria for narcissistic personality disorder encompasses an entitlement subscale. As a component of the NPI, entitlement is regarded as one of the factors that must be present when diagnosing clinical and subclinical narcissism (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). The entitlement subscale is defined as "the expectation of special privileges over others and special exemptions from normal social demands" (Raskin & Terry, 1988, p.890). Along with other necessary diagnostic criteria, excessive entitlement must be present to diagnose a narcissistic personality disorder. Due to the fact that entitlement can exist independently from other important narcissistic factors (e.g., exploitativeness, deceitfulness and assertiveness), entitlement on its own is not sufficient for diagnoses (Miller, Price, & Campbell, 2012). In the work context, conceptualising entitlement as a component of narcissism has been criticised

[11] Narcissism is described in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Health Disorders-5 as "A pervasive pattern of grandiosity (in fantasy or behaviour), need for admiration, and lack of empathy, beginning by early adulthood and present in a variety of contexts" (American Psychiatric Association, 2013, p.696).

as this conceptualisation focuses on its pathological forms (Jordan et al., 2016; Pryor, Miller, & Gaughan, 2008). Subsequently, a shift in the literature has been noted towards normative conceptualisations of expectations (Jordan et al., 2016).

2.3.2 Entitlement as a trait

In contrast to examining entitlement as a component of narcissism, entitlement is also conceptualised as a separate, distinct stand-alone construct. Campbell et al. (2004), the developers of the commonly used Psychological Entitlement Scale, highlighted the importance of conceptualising the construct in its own right and defined entitlement as "a stable and pervasive sense that one deserves more and is entitled to more than others" (p.31). According to this definition, entitlement is regarded as a personality trait, which globally influences individuals' thoughts and behaviours across different situations. One major drawback of using Campbell et al.'s (2004) general entitlement definition when studying entitlement in the workplace, is its lack of reference to the inputs, efforts or performance levels of the deserving person whose demonstrated efforts justify an entitlement disposition. As a result, Campbell et al.'s, (2004) definition of entitlement has been challenged for its narrow focus, since both the excessively entitled and ambitious individuals are painted with the same brush (Fisk, 2010). On the contrary, ambitious employees contribute inputs or effort in exchange for expected outcomes, whereas excessively entitled employees expect outcomes which are not inconsistent with their inputs. Similarly, employees with moderate outcome expectations can still be excessively entitled if their contribution is marginal or completely lacking (Joplin, 2014). Fisk (2010) addresses the ambiguity in Campbell et al.'s (2004) definition and defines excessive entitlement as a trait which reflects entitled attitudes based on inflated self-perceptions, rather than as an ambitious personality profile. These inflated self-perceptions are thought to stem from individual's exaggerated self-worth and overestimation of their inputs in comparison to others, hence the belief that they deserve more than others (Fisk, 2010).

Coupled with inflated self-perceptions, excessively entitled individuals have a consistently positive view of themselves and overlook any feedback that contradicts this view (Harvey & Harris, 2010). This behaviour inevitably lends itself to distorted perceptions of reality. As such, employee entitlement has also been described as a relatively stable disposition of inflated self-perceptions and unrealistic expectations concerning praise and rewards (Harvey & Harris, 2010). Harvey and Martinko (2009) expanded this definition and described employee entitlement as the consistent belief that preferential treatment and rewards are deserved regardless of the actual efforts or performance levels.

A comparison can be drawn between employee entitlement and economic entitlement to illustrate idealistic expectations without regard for efforts or performance level (Harvey &

Martinko, 2009). Economic entitlement refers to an exchange of products and services for some form of payment, whereas employee entitlement relates to the expectation of rewards and compensation in the absence of reciprocated effort and performance. A key distinction between these two forms of entitlement is that in the case of economic entitlement the exchange is agreed upon and presumably valued by both parties, whereas in the case of employee entitlement the exchange between the employee and the employer is not truly equitable.

This expansion of the entitlement definition highlights the inequitable exchange in the relationship between an employee with an entitlement mindset and their employer. This belief of deservingness without regard for expected performance standards contradicts the central understanding of the employment relationship, which is the exchange of work performed or services rendered in return for remuneration. Similarly, Naumann et al. (2002) described entitlement as the expected compensation for merely participating in the employment relationship. This description highlights the link between the expectations of reward stemming from participation in a social contract rather than because of one's inputs. By its very nature, a lack of reciprocity which is central to the employment relationship, undermines the basic underlying assumption of this relationship and invariably impacts the psychological contract (Naumann et al., 2002; Westerlaken, Jordan, & Ramsay, 2016).

Snyders (2002) suggested that perceptions of entitlement and a sense of deservingness might become part of an individual's self-identity when these rights are simply assumed. These rights may include the right to status and power; the right to disregard the emotions of others; the right not to demonstrate empathy towards others; the right to always direct blame externally without considering one's own shortcomings and the right to view oneself as superior. As a result, entitled individuals are generally thought to be preoccupied with self-enhancement behaviours and aim to acquire excessive and undeserved resources often at the expense of others (Hochwarter, Summers, Thompson, Perrewé, & Ferris, 2010). More recently, following an extensive literature review of entitlement in the workplace, Jordan et al. (2016) defined employee entitlement as "an excessive self-regard linked to a belief in the automatic right to privileged treatment at work" (p. 2).

Despite the above negative conceptualisations, entitlement has also been found to be positively related to self-esteem (Campbell et al., 2004). Generally, self-esteem refers to an individual's perception of their own value or worth (Rosenberg, Schooler, Schoenbach, & Rosenberg, 1995). A well-adjusted person with a high self-esteem is more likely to demand beneficial or positive outcomes in exchange for services rendered, indicating that entitlement is not necessarily bad or undesirable. For this reason, the overall negative conceptualisation

of the entitlement construct is not entirely accurate as is clarified in the subsequent paragraphs.

2.3.3 Entitlement as a consequence of expectations

Mainstream conceptualisations of entitlement are predominately negative, which skews the representation of the nature of the construct (Naumann et al., 2002). If an employee demonstrates tremendous effort and sacrifice in completing a project and believes that he or she deserves the related compensation or rewards, entitlement in this sense is considered "normal" or justified. Expectations to receive reasonable remuneration for services rendered or resources provided is referred to as "legitimate" entitlement (Brouer et al., 2011, p.3). Conversely, when an employee exerts marginal effort in a project and firmly believes that he or she has the right to be rewarded, the employee can be regarded as being excessively entitled due to the unreasonable expectations of reward. This evaluation of deservingness is in part contingent on the subjective judgment of the observer (Naumann et al., 2002).

This subjective judgement is based on the congruence between actual inputs versus expected outputs (Campbell et al., 2004; Naumann et al., 2002). According to Feather (2003), besides evaluating one's inputs versus reward expectations, the observer must also be cognisant of the congruence between the consequences of one's actions versus one's intention behind the consequences. To illustrate, one would be deemed undeserving of positive or negative outcomes if the consequences of one's behaviour were not in one's control or if the outcome was unintended. Equally important, the observer might have favourable perceptions of the person being evaluated and provide a biased judgement that the person is deserving of positive outcomes (Feather, 1999). This subjective evaluation of deservingness as well as entitlement's predominant negative connotation in the literature contributes to the varying and inconsistent definitions of the entitlement construct in the management sciences (Naumann et al., 2002).

2.3.4 Entitlement as a multidimensional construct

Another area of interest in the conceptualisation of employee entitlement is the dimensionality of the construct. In their conceptual work, Naumann et al. (2002) argued that entitlement perceptions comprise two dimensions, namely the level of entitlement and the degree of reciprocity in the exchange relationship. The level of entitlement ranges from low (e.g., perceived undeservingness of a certain distribution) to high (e.g. perceived deservingness of a certain distribution). With regard to the degree of reciprocity, employees are rewarded for their time, efforts, performance, sacrifices, loyalty, flexibility and commitment in the form of wages or salaries, recognition, learning and development opportunities, work-life balance, and status. Entitled employees tend to disregard the obligation to reciprocate in the employment

relationship and may thus demonstrate mediocre to low-performance levels (Naumann et al., 2002).

Recently, an empirical study was conducted exploring the dimensionality of employee entitlement (Lessard, Greenberger, Chen, & Farruggia, 2011). The objective of the study was to examine young adults and adolescents' entitlement attitudes and perceptions to ascertain if entitlement is consistently bad or undesirable as portrayed in the literature. The authors argued that the belief that one deserves beneficial outcomes may not distinguish between maladaptive entitled beliefs and positive self-view and a well-balanced sense of self-worth. Furthermore, the authors challenged the notion that entitlement is unidimensional (Campbell et al., 2004) but rather comprises two distinct sub facets namely, exploitative entitlement and non-exploitative entitlement. Exploitative entitlement is regarded as maladaptive whereas non-exploitative entitlement is regarded as an adaptive form of entitlement. Exploitative entitlement refers to a sense of entitlement characterised by the exploitation of others and is associated with low self-esteem related to a tendency to take advantage and exploit others in achieving their unfounded deservingness of rewards (Lessard et al., 2011). Highly exploitatively entitled individuals believe that they do not have to demonstrate as many efforts as others in obtaining the same rewards. Conversely, non-exploitative entitlement refers to a sense of entitlement of perceived deservingness of positive outcomes in life (e.g., "I deserve the best things in life", p.523) but does not involve a willingness to exploit others to achieve aspired outcomes. This perceived deservingness is based on high self-esteem, self-worth and self-value and a willingness to demonstrate the efforts required to achieve set goals (Lessard et al., 2011). The findings of this study found that firstly, both sub facets were highly correlated with the Psychological Entitlement Scale (Campbell et al., 2004), suggesting that both sub facets tap into the entitlement construct. Secondly, that both sub facets are distinct. Exploitative entitlement was found to be uniquely associated with lesser levels of work orientation, social commitment, and self-esteem and greater levels of psychopathy and neuroticism. Whereas non-exploitative entitlement was uniquely related to higher self-esteem (Lessard et al., 2011). These findings provide support for the multidimensionality of employee entitlement and the notion that all feelings of entitlement are not necessarily undesirable.

2.3.5 Trait vs state

A further contentious issue among organisational scholars is whether employee entitlement is considered a personality trait or a state. Predominant in the extant literature is employee entitlement's conceptualisation as a personality trait (Brees, Martinko, & Harvey, 2016; Campbell et al., 2004; Grubbs & Exline, 2016; Harvey & Martinko, 2009; Harvey & Harris, 2010; Lessard et al., 2011; Miller & Gallagher, 2016; Wheeler, Halbesleben, & Whitman,

2013). As a personality trait, entitlement is regarded as a characteristic of an individual which is relatively stable across situations and influences one's thoughts, attitudes and behaviours.

Several scholars have challenged the view that entitlement is stable across different situations and referred to this perspective as quite narrow (Fisk, 2010; Jordan et al., 2016; Zitek, Jordan, Monin, & Leach, 2010). In their view, entitlement perceptions may vary across situations and is regarded as a latent construct that can be activated or triggered by specific experiences. For instance, individuals may feel entitled to certain outcomes at work but not necessarily at home and therefore situational factors in the workplace specifically may trigger the activation of entitlement perceptions. This is consistent with the trait activation theory (Tett & Burnett, 2003) which posits that personality traits may emerge in response to trait-relevant environmental cues. These trait-relevant environmental cues may relate to organisational, social and/or task cues. Simply put, different situations may have the potential to trigger the emergence of entitlement. For example, a recent study found that feeling unfairly treated or wronged precipitates a heightened sense of entitlement, which in turn, leads to selfish behaviours (Zitek et al., 2010).

In conclusion, from the above-mentioned conceptualisations, it can be inferred that the definition of entitlement comprises three fundamental aspects that are vital to the present understanding of the entitlement construct. Firstly, excessive entitlement refers to the belief that preferential treatment and rewards are expected and deserved. Secondly, when making these demands relating to rewards and remuneration, employees do not consider their performance, the costs to the organisation, how their demands impact other employees or the issue of equity (Westerlaken et al., 2016). Thirdly, the entitled individual has a persistent positive view of themselves and disregards any information that contradicts this view. Jordan et al.'s (2016) definition of employee entitlement as "an excessive self-regard linked to a belief in the automatic right to privileged treatment at work" (p.2) concisely encapsulates all three of these aspects and therefore is used to inform this present study. Furthermore, the employee entitlement construct is regarded as distinct from narcissism, which is generally considered to be a broader, complex psychological disorder (Jordan et al., 2016). The next question that warrants attention is what the causes or predictors of this entitlement disposition are.

2.4 Antecedents of entitlement

The section below provides an account of some of the workplace conditions, which may serve as antecedents that trigger the onset of entitlement perceptions among employees. These antecedents include recruitment and socialisation or onboarding, performance appraisals, remuneration, the psychological contract, employees' involvement in decision making,

engagement in organisational citizenship behaviours and the tendency of management to communicate constant positive feedback *in lieu* of balanced feedback.

2.4.1 Workplace conditions as antecedents of entitlement

In the workplace, and viewing employee entitlement from a trait activation perspective, it has been hypothesised that the relevance of employee entitlement can only be understood if assessment occurs in work situations where entitlement is likely to be triggered (Fisk, 2010). Consequently, several conceptual situational conditions that may trigger employee entitlement are explored next.

Fisk (2010) proposed two key HR functions that are likely to provide fertile ground for entitlement to flourish, namely recruitment and socialisation and performance appraisal and remuneration. First, as part of the recruitment and socialisation HR function, employers are inclined to offer attractive incentives and bonuses with the hope of attracting top talent. This focus on ensuring that the employer's value proposition is lucrative and attractive may not only attract top talent but may also be attractive to highly entitled individuals and may even strengthen the outcome expectations of individuals with normal entitlement levels (Fisk, 2010). Furthermore, rewarding past behaviour and credentials in the hope of future performance at the outset of the employment relationship may lead to feelings of distinction and perceived deservingness, which sets high expectations of rewards. Should these expectations not be met, the employee may feel that the psychological contract has been violated and that they have been wronged.

Second, in the performance appraisal and remuneration HR function, overly lenient performance feedback and rewards that do not distinguish between poor, average and exceptional performances may diminish reciprocity in the employment relationship as poor or average employees might feel that they do not have to work as hard as the exceptional performers because rewards are awarded equally. As such, this situation may increase feelings of deservingness and unrealistic high expectations of reward.

Another possible cause of excessive entitlement attitudes could be attributed to the mismanagement of the psychological contract (Naumann et al., 2002). The psychological contract refers to the unique unarticulated beliefs about the reciprocal obligations and rewards that form part of the exchange between an employee and employer (Rousseau, 1995). Employee's employment history at other companies, pre-employment experiences during the recruitment phase and subtle hints or what management states contribute to the formation of the contract (Rousseau, 2001). The contract is therefore based on perceived promises between the employee and employer with trust as the foundation of the relationship (Van den Heuvel & Schalk, 2009). Therefore, the contract reflects an

individual's own, subjective understanding of the obligations and expectations, which forms part of the employment exchange. Additionally, individuals perceive this understanding to be mutual, irrespective of whether this is indeed the reality (Rousseau, 1995). Consequently, employees expect to receive what is promised. When these expectations are not adequately managed during the onboarding or socialisation phase, employees may develop unrealistic entitlement attitudes.

Another example of a situation that may bolster a sense of entitlement, is involving employees in workplace decision-making opportunities, which is part of participative leadership and encouraged in contemporary management practices. Empowering employees by providing employees involvement opportunities such as participation, self-managing work teams and employee ownership and profit-sharing may actually contribute to employees developing a sense of entitlement (Paul, Niehoff, & Turnley, 2000). When these entitlement beliefs are unfulfilled, the employee may perceive a psychological contract breach and respond with indignant feelings demonstrated through counterproductive work behaviours.

Engaging in OCBs is another workplace situation that has been found to encourage a sense of entitlement among employees. Originally OCBs have been regarded as voluntary helpful acts that extend beyond task performance which has the potential to enhance organisations (Organ, 1988). However, several scholars have noted that employees often engage in OCBs not because they want to but because they feel compelled to do so (Bolino, Klotz, Turnley, & Harvey, 2013; Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). This could be due to OCBs forming part of the job description (McAllister, Kamdar, Morrison, & Turban, 2007; Morrison, 1994), and consequently be formally rewarded (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991). To this end, employees may engage in OCBs to avoid punishment or retribution. These studies support Organ's (1997) revised definition of OCBs which suggest that OCBs need not be discretionary to be considered citizenship behaviours but that any behaviours supporting task performance in the organisational context can be considered OCBs. It could be argued that feeling pressured by external forces to go beyond the call of duty may elicit and reinforce a heightened sense of entitlement. A recent study found empirical support for the notion that when employees feel obligated to participate in OCBs this leads to a heightened sense of entitlement (Yam, Klotz, He, & Reynolds, 2017). In addition, psychological entitlement stemming from engaging in externally motivated OCBs may subsequently lead to engaging in CWBs should entitlement beliefs not be met. Therefore, engaging in externally motivated OCBs influences employees' attitudes and in turn their resultant behaviours (Yam et al., 2017).

Additional workplace attributes that may have the potential to cause excessive entitlement perceptions include management's tendency to communicate constant positive feedback as opposed to balanced feedback (Heath, Knez, & Camerer, 1993), job status (Tomlinson, 2013),

and organisational tenure and culture (Roehling, Roehling, & Boswell, 2010). Legitimate entitlement regarding one's job status constitutes the granting of special benefits based on one's status in the organisation (e.g., special parking near the entrance). These special benefits are not contingent on individual performance but merely based on one's status. Conversely, one's job status might also lead to excessive entitlement perceptions given that higher status heightens individual's natural inclination to engage in social comparisons (Festinger as cited in Tomlinson, 2013). As social comparisons are linked to one's perception of self-worth (Collins, 1996), the excessively entitled employee may select a comparison target which is superior to him/her in some way and these upward comparisons may lead to unrealistic entitlement attitudes (Tomlinson, 2013). Organisational tenure and organisational culture have also been earmarked as potential triggers to excessive entitlement perceptions (Roehling et al., 2010). The authors theorised that increased exposure (e.g. organisational tenure) to an organisational climate which emphasises teamwork and altruistic behaviours promotes a less entitled orientation whereas increased exposure to an organisational climate which emphasises a more transactional approach to employment (e.g. individual economic rewards) promotes a more entitled disposition.

To summarise, various conceptual and theoretical situational factors, which have the potential to trigger and augment employee entitlement have been proposed. As a result, and contrary to Campbell et al.'s (2004) conceptualisation of entitlement as a trait which is stable across situations, this current study regards entitlement as a situationally activated state which varies across situations. In the next section, the consequences of entitlement perceptions in the workplace are explored.

2.5 Entitlement outcomes in the workplace

Unrealistic entitlement perceptions can cause difficulties for both the employee and the organisation (Harvey & Harris, 2010). Previous research has found excessive entitlement attitudes and perceptions to be linked to negative workplace outcomes and counterproductive work behaviours. As a result of unmet expectations, entitlement has been postulated to promote job dissatisfaction (Naumann et al., 2002). Indeed, entitlement was found to be negatively related to job satisfaction (Harvey & Martinko, 2009). Furthermore, individuals with a high sense of entitlement are more likely to experience conflict with their supervisors, increased tension and increased turnover intentions (Harvey & Martinko, 2009). These outcomes may be attributable to perceived unfair treatment, even if treatment received is in proportion to actual performance (Harvey & Martinko, 2009)

Entitlement has also been found to be a significant predictor of social behaviour and positively related to competitiveness, selfish behaviours, aggression, less empathy and perspective

taking, lower accommodation and less respect for others (Campbell et al., 2004; Reidy, Zeichner, Foster, & Martinez, 2008). Equally noteworthy, employees with a heightened sense of entitlement are more likely to experience feelings of frustration and these feelings lead to engagement in political behaviours (Harvey & Harris, 2010). Furthermore, high levels of supervisor communication were found to raise frustration levels of employees with a heightened sense of entitlement. In addition, entitlement-driven frustration was also found to promote co-worker abuse (e.g. rudeness and insults) (Harvey & Harris, 2010). Similarly, entitled individuals are more inclined to perceive their supervisors as abusive which may lead to an increase in emotional exhaustion and in turn, increased levels of co-worker abuse (Harvey et al, 2014; Wheeler et al., 2013).

Abusive supervision relates to the subjective perception of subordinates of the degree to which their supervisors demonstrate hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviours, excluding physical attacks (Tepper, 2000). Abusive supervision is associated with increased subordinates' turnover intentions, reduced life and job satisfaction, psychological distress, CWBs and reduced OCBs (Tepper, 2000; Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002). Likewise, a study of healthcare workers revealed that supervisors with a heightened sense of entitlement are more likely to be perceived by their subordinates as abusive (Whitman, Halbesleben, & Shanine, 2013).

Moreover, recent corporate scandals have been attributed to a heightened sense of entitlement of individuals in leadership positions (Levine, 2005). Past research suggests that entitlement attitudes and perceptions among leaders may give rise to corruption and excessive self-centred behaviours (Levine, 2005; Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006). Consequently, entitled leaders may believe that they are entitled to and deserve exorbitant remuneration and rewards and will endeavour to obtain these outcomes even if it means breaking the law (Harvey & Martinko, 2009).

Employee entitlement has also been associated with psychological effects (e.g., stress for the entitled and the non-entitled employee). The perception of excessive entitlement in colleagues is likely to create stress and reduced OCB for the non-entitled employee (Hochwarter, Meurs, Perrewe, Royle, & Matherly, 2007; Hochwarter et al., 2010). Whereas, the inflated self-perceptions and perceived deservingness of entitled employees pave the way for possible recurring unmet expectations and perceived broken promises (Naumann et al., 2002; Priesemuth & Taylor, 2016). It is suggested that recurring unmet expectations cause workplace stress due to insufficient recognition from supervisors and colleagues. Prolonged workplace stress is known to lead to burnout and has been linked to reduced productivity (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001), increased absenteeism and turnover intent, reduced job satisfaction and low morale (Rothmann, 2003).

Another workplace outcome stemming from a heightened sense of entitlement is a perceived breach of the psychological contract. A perceived psychological contract breach results in the aggrieved party feeling that the other party failed to deliver on the perceived commitments of the social exchange. Consequently, the aggrieved party may feel that the trust in the relationship has been broken and respond with reduced loyalty and commitment (Van den Heuvel & Schalk, 2009). These negative feelings may contribute to increased tension in the environment and affect overall morale.

Co-worker perceptions of entitlement behaviour have also been linked to tension, depression, job dissatisfaction and reduced OCBs (Hochwarter et al., 2007). Heightened entitlement in the workplace has also been found to be a significant predictor of the desire to seek revenge when expected rewards and treatment are not received (Westerlaken, et al., 2011). Revenge as a motivator of aggressive behaviour may prompt entitled employees to engage in retaliatory or revenge behaviours as a reaction to the perceived injustice.

In closing, employee entitlement is empirically associated with undesirable outcomes for both the employee and the organisation. Therefore, this association lends credence to the need for the present study which examines the influence of employee entitlement on counterproductive work behaviours. Possible theoretical frameworks underpinning employee entitlement and its undesirable outcomes will be addressed next.

2.6 Entitlement theoretical frameworks

Due to its infancy as a scientific construct, a generally accepted theoretical framework underpinning entitlement in the workplace is currently lacking. Two theories that have been suggested to explain the link between employee entitlement and negative workplace outcomes include; the self-serving attributional theory and equity sensitivity theory.

2.6.1 Self-serving attributional theory

Despite the link between heightened entitlement perceptions and negative workplace outcomes and counterproductive work behaviours, empirical research explicitly focusing on the cognitive and perceptual processes through which entitlement affects attitudes and behaviours is scarce (Harvey & Martinko, 2009). As a result, there is a lack of understanding of how the negative consequences of entitlement can be prevented. To bridge this gap, Harvey and Martinko (2009) used attribution theory to identify a psychological mechanism, namely self-serving attribution style, to predict the impact of psychological entitlement on certain workplace outcomes namely, turnover intent, job satisfaction and conflict with supervisors. Attribution theory describes, “those perceptual and cognitive processes used to understand the causes of human behavior" (Norris-Watts & Lord, 2004, p. 57). According to Harvey and Martinko (2009), entitlement perceptions diminish one’s cognitive processing when evaluating

work situations which in turn, facilitates the activation of “biased and self-serving attributional tendencies” (p.460). These attributional tendencies are predicted to promote negative workplace outcomes.

It has been theorised that individuals with a strong sense of entitlement have an enduring positive view of themselves and tend to disregard any feedback that contradicts this view; they will endeavour to protect and maintain this favourable self-view (Harvey & Martinko, 2009). The entitled individual will even go as far as ignoring internal characteristics when forming attributions for undesirable events and, in turn, distort reality perceptions to ensure that their desirable self-image is not tarnished. To this end, the individual will attribute negative events in their lives to external factors, which are outside of the individual’s control (e.g. attributing poor performance to external factors such as inadequate resources). Conversely, positive events are attributed to internal characteristics rather than external forces which, in turn, strengthen and reinforce the positive self-view. Accordingly, Harvey and Martinko (2009) hypothesised that entitled individuals selectively seek out causal information that reinforces their positive self-image and purposefully ignore any feedback that contradicts this view. Stated differently, psychological entitlement promotes a self-serving attributional bias which attributes undesirable outcomes to external factors whereas desirable outcomes are attributed to internal factors.

Furthermore, it is argued that the relationship between psychological entitlement and a self-serving attributional bias is mediated by a need for cognition (Harvey & Martinko, 2009). Need for cognition is described as ‘‘a need to understand and make reasonable the experiential world’’ (Cohen, Stotland, & Wolfe, 1955, p.291). Individuals have a desire to form rational and accurate attitudes concerning life situations but do not always have the cognitive capacity to appraise every detail of their life to form accurate attitudes. Thus, individuals differ in their motivations to construct accurate perceptions of their life events and have different levels of need for cognition (Cacioppo, Petty, Kao, & Rodriguez, 1986). When individuals disregard relevant information when forming attitudes or opinions regarding a situation they are thought to have a low need for cognition whereas when individuals seek and thoroughly process relevant information to ensure that the attributions formed are accurate and objective, are thought to have a higher need for cognition (Harvey & Martinko, 2009). Therefore, the authors argue that a self-serving attributional bias is probable when a diminished need for cognition stems from a sense of entitlement.

The results from Harvey and Martinko’s (2009) study supported the claim that psychological entitlement is associated with unfavourable workplace outcomes. Entitled individuals with a low need for cognition were found to be more likely to experience job dissatisfaction and report higher levels of conflict with their supervisors as a result of their self-serving attribution style.

Subsequent results thus support the argument that the effect of entitlement on workplace outcomes can be partially explained by the relationship between entitlement, need for cognition and attributional processes. Based on these findings, psychological entitlement is associated with a diminished need for cognition and this, in turn, reduces one's motivation to accurately evaluate the situation which leads to the activation of attribution styles that augment positive, favourable self-perceptions by promoting self-serving explanations for workplace outcomes. Thus, a low need for cognition stemming from a strong sense of entitlement is likely to lead to a self-serving bias. In summary, the authors found that entitlement was associated with self-serving attributional biases and a relatively low need for cognition. These findings provide an explanation for how entitled individuals are able to maintain their inflated self-perceptions despite contradictory feedback and evidence (Harvey & Martinko, 2009).

2.6.2 Equity sensitivity theory

Another theory that seems to underlie entitlement perceptions in the workplace is the equity sensitivity theory (Adams, 1963; Huseman, Hatfield, & Miles, 1987; Huseman, Hatfield, & Miles, 1985). According to the theory, individuals (employees) compare their inputs (e.g. expertise, effort) to their output (e.g., benefits, pay) to form an equity ratio which is compared to referent other's equity ratio. When inequity is perceived during this comparison, employees will respond in a manner which is believed to reduce the inequity. This response may include reduced efforts, requesting more pay or benefits, sabotaging the efforts of the referent others (Miller & Gallagher, 2016). The theory further holds that people vary in terms of their equity sensitivity and respond to perceived equity and inequity differently. Huseman et al. (1985) described three types of people referred to as benevolent, equity sensitives and entitled. The *benevolent* prefer their equity ratio (inputs vs. outcomes) to be less than the referent other and are quite content being under rewarded. The *equity sensitives* desire equivalency and prefer that their equity ratio is equal to the equity ratio of their referent others. Lastly, the *entitled* prefer that their outcomes are greater than their inputs and expect to get more than others for the same work or effort. The theory assumes that most people fall into the equity sensitive group, seeking equality and justice when compared with others. Therefore, from an equity sensitivity perspective, psychologically entitled employees can be regarded as both the equity sensitives and entitled because these employees by and large believe that they are deserving, regardless of their actual contributions (Campbell et al., 2004). Following this reasoning, both groups would expect preferential treatment and rewards (outcomes) based on their perceived contributions (inputs). Furthermore, it is expected that they would demonstrate behaviours (e.g. reduced efforts, sabotage) that would bring about equivalency.

The preceding section examined the self-serving attributional theory and the equity sensitivity theory as possible theoretical frameworks underpinning entitlement perceptions and its

negative consequences in the workplace. Regarding the equity sensitivity theory, a question that needs to be asked, however, is whether entitlement is triggered by comparison to others or is entitlement only a result of one's own evaluation of one's self-worth? In light of the ambiguity surrounding the equity sensitivity theory in extant literature (Jordan et al., 2016), the self-serving attributional theory underpinned entitlement perceptions in the present study.

2.7 The proposed Employee Entitlement – Counterproductive work behaviour conceptual model

The primary objective of this study is to examine employee entitlement (hereafter referred to as 'EE') and to ascertain whether entitlement perceptions of employees influence engagement in CWB. Significant events at work impact the emotions of employees and the consequences of these emotions can influence the attitudes and ultimately the behaviours of employees. Drawing on affective events theory (AET; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), a psychological contract breach (PCB) is regarded as a significant workplace event in the present study, which acts as an antecedent to CWB and this relationship is mediated by psychological contract violation (PCV) and the desire for revenge. More specifically, the mediating affective and motivational processes (e.g., the need to restore equity) in the nomological net of CWB when a breach of the psychological contract is perceived are examined, as will be further explained in the subsequent section. Thereafter, the role of EE in this nomological net is examined.

Extant theory and literature suggest that both employees' thoughts (cognitions) and feelings (affect) about work are likely to influence their behaviours (Lee & Allen, 2002). Based on the model of CWB proposed by Robinson and Bennett (1997) and the work of Bordia et al. (2008), CWB is activated by organisational stressors (e.g. perceived injustice, poor and unfair working conditions). These organisational stressors precipitate a cognitive appraisal of the disequilibrium between what is expected and what is experienced together with an emotional reaction often characterised by frustration, anger or mistrust. These cognitive appraisals and emotional reactions motivate a desire to either restore the imbalance (instrumental motivation) or to vent or release these negative emotions (expressive motivation). These two motivations are closely interlinked, and the same CWB can fulfil both motivations. Equally noteworthy, not every inclination to engage in CWB is acted upon. As mentioned earlier, some individuals may opt not to engage in CWB due to fear of retribution or punishment or choose to forgive the transgressor.

In part, the proposed model of CWB is a replication of the mediation model proposed and tested by Bordia et al. (2008). Bordia and his colleagues proposed and tested a model which included the cognitive (PCB), affective (PCV) and motivational (revenge cognitions) variables underpinning the engagement of CWB. Additionally, dispositional self-control was included as

a self-regulatory mechanism influencing whether an employee will decide to engage in CWB or not. The distinction between the model in this study (see Figure 2.6) and that of Bordia et al.'s (2008) is that the proposed model incorporates the influence of employee entitlement on CWB. Furthermore, Bordia et al.'s (2008) model was tested in a public-sector organisation in the Philippines, whereas the proposed model was tested in a higher education institution in South Africa.

To this end, in the proposed model the perception of a breach represents cognitions of imbalance between what is perceived to be promised by the organisation and what is received. These cognitions, in turn, precipitate feelings of violation (perceived contract violation) which are characterised by feelings such as frustration, anger, betrayal, and mistrust in response to the perceived breach and is indicative of the outrage element in the CWB model (Robinson & Bennett, 1997). These cognitions and emotions motivate a desire for revenge. Revenge represents both the instrumental and expressive motivation in the CWB model (Robinson & Bennett, 1997) in that the purpose of revenge is to release or vent the resultant negative emotions (e.g., frustration, anger, betrayal, mistrust), redress the inequality in the exchange relationship and reprimand the organisation for the breach. These revenge motivations, in turn, culminate in the engagement of CWB. Finally, self-control is the personality variable and acts as a self-regulatory mechanism and moderates the relationship between revenge and CWBs (e.g. the likelihood is greater than individuals low in self-control will act upon their revenge motivations and engage in CWB whereas individuals high in self-control are more likely to suppress their desire for revenge and choose not to engage in CWB). A more detailed account of the additional variables in our model namely, psychological contract breach (PCB), psychological contract violation (PCV), revenge cognitions (RC) and self-control (SC) is provided in the following section.

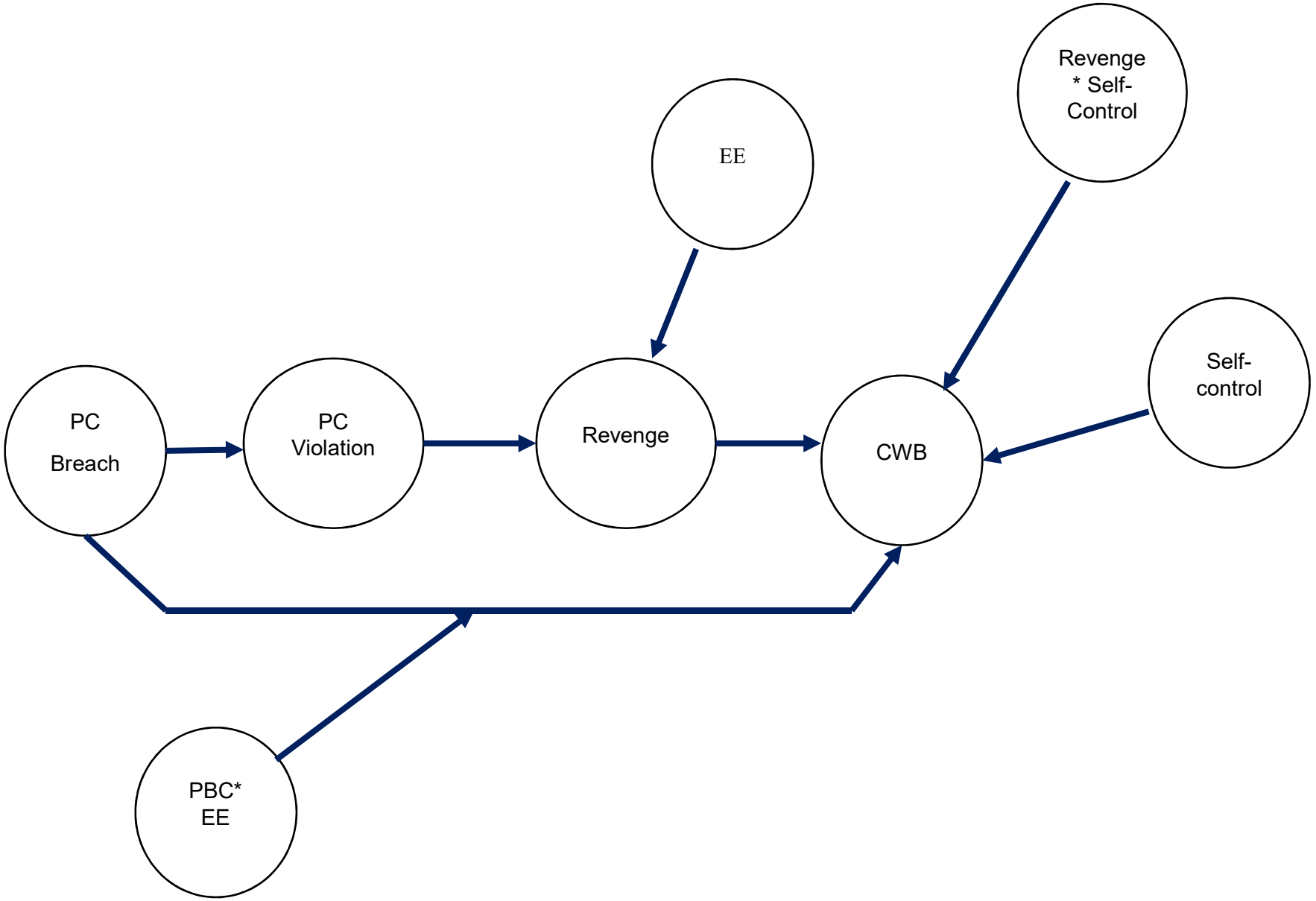

Figure 2.6. Conceptual model of the influence of employee entitlement on counterproductive work behaviours when a psychological contract breach occurs

2.8 Conceptualisation of psychological contract breach (PCB) and psychological contract violation (PCV)

Psychological contracts refer to beliefs about the mutual obligations and rewards in the employment relationship. As such, they are a set of beliefs about what both employee and employer are eligible to receive and mandated to give in exchange for the other party's inputs (Levinson, Price, Munden, Mandi, & Solley, 1962). These beliefs are idiosyncratic and subject to several cognitive tendencies that distort perceptions in self-serving ways (Rousseau, 1995). An important feature of the psychological contract is that it is inherently subjective and "exists in the eye of the beholder" (Rousseau, 1995, p. 6). Equally noteworthy, there is a distinction between the psychological contract and the broader construct of expectations. According to Robinson (1996), the psychological contract only refers to the expectations and obligations arising from implicit or explicit promises made by the organisational representatives (e.g., recruiters and line managers).

Psychological contracts can be categorised into two dimensions namely transactional and relational (Rousseau, 1995). The transactional dimension relates to specific, economically oriented organisational promises based on employees' current performance e.g. competitive salary and incentives. Whereas, the relational dimension relates to less specific and non-economically oriented organisational promises aimed at maintaining the long-term relationship between the employer and employee e.g. learning and development opportunities, career advancement opportunities and supervisory support (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). This distinction between the transactional and relational dimensions of the psychological contract has been empirically supported by several scholars (Restubog, Bordia, & Tang, 2006; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Turnley, Bolino, Lester, & Bloodgood, 2003).

In light of the fact that entitlement perceptions influence employees' expectations and expectations form part of the psychological contract, it is important to explore the possible factors that contribute to the formation of the psychological contract (Naumann et al., 2002; Paul et al., 2000). Shore and Tetrick (1994) maintain that these contracts are formed through the employee's interactions with various agents of the organisation such as their supervisors or HR personnel. Similarly, it is claimed that the beliefs included in the psychological contract emerge during the recruitment and socialisation process (Rousseau, 2001). Even though the contract is a consequence of the employee's interactions with individual organisational agents, from the employee's perspective the contract exists between him or her and the employer (Robinson & Morrison, 1995). From an employee's point of view, the central premise of the psychological contract is that the employer upholds their obligations (Rousseau, 1989). When an employee feels that the organisation has failed to fulfil its promises (implicit or explicit), a psychological contract breach may be perceived (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994).

A *psychological contract breach* is an employee's subjective perception that the employer did not abide by its part of the agreement. If the perceived breach is significant, the individual will experience a violation of the contract, which is referred to as *psychological contract violation* (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). In the earlier literature, psychological contract breach and psychological contract violation were used interchangeably. In an attempt to augment definitional clarity, psychological contract breach was later distinguished from psychological contract violation (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). *Psychological contract breach* is referred to as a cognitive appraisal stemming from an employee's perceptions that the employer failed to fulfil their obligations (e.g., perceived discrepancy between what is believed to be promised and what was delivered). On the other hand, psychological *contract violation* is the affective response which follows the cognitive appraisal of the breach e.g. expected outcomes did not materialise. Stated differently, the psychological contract breach triggers psychological contract violation which is accompanied by strong negative emotions (e.g., disappointment, anger, frustration, feelings of betrayal) (Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Robinson & Wolfe Morrison, 2000). In the context of this study, this distinction between psychological contract breach and psychological contract violation is important and therefore viewed as two distinct separate constructs.

The perceived breach of the psychological contract and the subsequent violation of the contract have been linked to negative workplace outcomes including job dissatisfaction and intention to quit (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994), reduced OCB (Kickul, Neuman, Parker, & Finkl, 2001; Restubog et al., 2006; Robinson & Morrison, 1995), mistrust (Robinson, 1996), reduced employee performance (Restubog et al., 2006; Turnley et al., 2003), increased absenteeism (Deery, Iverson, & Walsh, 2006) and reduced affective commitment (Arshad & Sparrow, 2010; Knights & Kennedy, 2005; Rigotti, 2009). These negative workplace outcomes, as a consequence of the cognitive appraisal of the perceived discrepancy between what is believed to be promised and what was delivered i.e. psychological contract breach, can be explained by Social Exchange Theory (Rousseau, 1995). Rules of social exchange govern the relationship between the employer and employee, and when employees feel that the employer did not uphold their part of the contract they will reciprocate with negative workplace behaviours such as withholding effort, engaging in CWBs and exiting the organisation (Bordia et al., 2008). In light of the affective component (emotional response) which is characteristic of psychological contract violation, Affective Events Theory (AET) provides a theoretical explanation for the resultant negative workplace outcomes (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996; Zhao et al., 2007). AET suggests that a significant workplace event (e.g., psychological contract breach) will induce strong emotional reactions (e.g., frustration, anger, mistrust) which in turn, influences an employee's attitudes (e.g. vengeance) and consequent

behaviours (e.g. CWB). In the subsequent section, we take a closer look at revenge cognitions as a consequence of psychological contract violation and as a possible cause of CWBs.

2.9 Conceptualisation of revenge cognitions (RC)

Individuals respond to interpersonal transgression in a number of ways including avoidance, forgiveness or with desires to seek revenge (McCullough et al., 1998). Since the relationship between perceived injustice (e.g. as a result of a breach in the psychological contract) and CWB are believed to stimulate underlying desires for revenge (e.g., Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), the inclusion of revenge as a motivational variable preceding CWB in our model, is warranted. In the extant literature, revenge is regarded as an attitude (Stuckless & Goranson, 1992) and as a behaviour (Bies & Tripp, 1995). Revenge is defined as "an effort by the victim of harm to inflict damage, injury, discomfort, or punishment on the party judged responsible for causing the harm" (Aquino, Tripp, & Bies, 2001, p. 53).

Perceptions of being wronged or treated unfairly cause revengeful attitudes which in turn, motivate aggressive behaviours (Stuckless & Goranson, 1992). Revenge can thus be regarded as a motivator to aggressive behaviours. Generally speaking, revenge is believed to be a purposeful retaliation in an attempt to restore justice (Aquino et al., 2001; Bordia et al., 2008). Aggressive behaviours are violent acts directed at the target of the mistreatment but may also include more subtle non-confrontational acts such as reduced quality or quantity of work, refusing to help a colleague, sabotage, insubordination or silent treatment (Cortina & Magley, 2003). According to (Bies et al., 1997), there are several stages involved in the development of revengeful attitudes and behaviours. Firstly, a significant event such as a perceived injustice or a psychological contract breach may trigger the need for revenge. These events precipitate strong negative emotions (e.g. anger, frustration or mistrust) which are accompanied by revengeful thoughts and in turn lead to various actions. Some individuals may choose to forgive and remain passive or due to fear of retaliation may opt not to seek revenge. Whereas other individuals may intentionally retaliate in a manner that harms the transgressor (Bordia et al., 2008). Behaviour motivated by revengeful attitudes are generally considered to be premeditated which entails ruminating about causing the transgressor harm (Bies & Tripp, 2001). These revenge cognitions embody the intent which motivates the enactment of harmful behaviours directed at the transgressor.

Antecedents of revenge are believed to include individual differences such as negative reciprocity norm endorsement[12] (Eisenberger, Lynch, Aselage, & Rohdieck, 2004), a hostile attribution style (Aquino et al., 2001), agreeableness (Skarlicki, Folger, & Tesluk, 1999) and

[12] Negative norm of reciprocity refers to a set of beliefs which favour retribution as the appropriate way to respond to unfavourable treatment (Eisenberger, et al., 2004).

more recently, employee entitlement (Westerlaken et al., 2011). Organisational factors which may contribute to revenge seeking include perceived injustice, loss of status and authority (Bies & Tripp, 2001) or interpersonal offence (Aquino et al., 2001).

Bies, Tripp and Kramer's (1997) theory of revenge provides an explanation as to why individuals would want to seek revenge. According to their theory, revenge follows a path relating to a violated expectations-accountability-anger link. Firstly, a triggered event (PCB) upsets the individual. Next, following a rumination of the event, a decision is made as to whether the transgressor (e.g. organisation, supervisor or colleagues) should be held accountable for the offence. When the transgressor is believed to have intentionally created the triggered event (PCB), the individual will become angry and be more likely to seek revenge.

Simply put, when employees perceived injustice (e.g. as a result of a breach in the psychological contract) in the employment relationship, they will endeavour to 'get even' or level the playing field by seeking revenge in the form of CWBs. In other words, from an employee's perspective, the perception that the employer did not uphold their part of the deal serves as a provocation to seek revenge and engage in revenge related behaviours. Therefore, in the context of the present study, revenge is regarded as an attitude which motivates engagement in CWB. Next, self-control is presented as a potential buffer to CWBs.

2.10 Conceptualisation of self-control (SC)

Not all individuals react to situations in the same way. Likewise, not all individuals will react to their desire for revenge in the same way. As mentioned earlier, individuals may decide to not act upon their revenge impulses due to fear of punishment, they may decide to forgive the transgressor or respond with the aim to get even. This cognitive processing in deciding whether to act upon impulses or not is governed by a personality variable called self-control. In this section, we examine self-control as a buffer to CWB.

Self-control is defined as ''the ability to override or change one's inner responses, as well as to interrupt undesired behavioural tendencies (such as impulses) and refrain from acting on them'' (Tangney, Baumeister, & Boone, 2004, p. 274). Self-control enables individuals to resist temptations to act upon their impulses or desires by altering or changing their habitual responses to situations. In a similar vein, self-control is regarded as a facet of self-regulation wherein the individual exerts conscious effort to control or override their responses whereas self-regulation is a global term also encompassing unconscious regulatory processes (i.e., the body's ability to maintain homeostasis) (Baumeister, Vohs, & Tice, 2007). As an important feature of self-regulatory behaviours, self-control influences one's tendency to respond to situations and thereby regulates one's thoughts, emotions and behaviours (De Ridder, Lensvelt-Mulders, Finkenauer, Stok, & Baumeister, 2012). Many desirable behaviour

responses (i.e., good academic performance) are attributed to high self-control, whereas undesirable behaviour responses (i.e., CWB) are ascribed to low self-control (De Ridder et al., 2012). The literature distinguishes between dispositional self-control and state self-control (Tangney et al., 2004). State self-control varies whereas dispositional self-control is stable across situations and time. In the present study, self-control is regarded as a dispositional variable which enables individuals to alter, modify or override their impulses or desires.

The aetiology of self-control is attributed to parental socialisation practices during early childhood development (Vazsonyi & Huang, 2010) and genetic factors (Beaver, Connolly, Schwartz, Al-Ghamdi, & Kobeisy, 2013). Many undesirable behaviours and social problems have been linked to a lack of self-control (i.e., obesity, violent crime, over-indebtedness, unplanned pregnancies) (Baumeister, Heatherton, & Tice, 1994; Vohs & Faber, 2007). Conversely, high self-control has been linked to adaptive outcomes such as academic and career success, cohesive personal relationships and reduced susceptibility to drug and alcohol abuse, amongst others (Tangney et al., 2004). These studies provide empirical support for the notion that individuals with high self-control are better able to control and regulate their thoughts, emotions, and behaviours in comparison to individuals with low self-control. The variance in criminal and deviant behaviours (including CWB) is best explained by the self-control theory which is also known as the general theory of crime (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990). The theory contends that criminal and deviant behaviours are largely as a result of low self-control. Furthermore, individuals who demonstrate high self-control are able to resist the temptations and impulses of engaging in deviant behaviours because they acknowledge that engagement in such behaviours comes at a cost (i.e., punishment or retribution). Consequently, this further justifies the inclusion of self-control when studying counterproductive work behaviours.

2.11 Relationships between variables

The following section examines the relationships between the latent variables in the study including psychological contract breach, psychological contract violation, revenge cognitions, self-control, CWB and employee entitlement.

2.11.1 Psychological contract breach and CWB

Drawing on social exchange theory (SET; Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), when employees perceive that the psychological contract has been breached they will respond in various negative ways such as engaging in undesirable behaviours that may be detrimental to the organisation and its stakeholders (Paul et al., 2000). Indeed, several studies have shown empirical support for these negative consequences of a perceived psychological contract breach including intention to quit (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994), reduced OCB (Kickul et al., 2001; Restubog et al., 2006, 2007; Robinson & Morrison, 1995), mistrust (Robinson,

1996), reduced employee performance (Restubog et al., 2006; Turnley et al., 2003), increased absenteeism (Deery et al., 2006) and reduced affective commitment (Arshad & Sparrow, 2010; Knights & Kennedy, 2005; Rigotti, 2009). Additionally, support was shown for CWB as a negative result of PCB (Bordia et al., 2008; Chao et al., 2011; Restubog, Zagenczyk, Bordia,& Chapman, 2015). These findings support the notion that PCB can trigger CWB. In line with Bordia et al.'s (2008) argument, given that PCB is an organisational-level transgression (Bordia et al., 2008) it is the expectation that CWB will be targeted towards the organisation (organisational deviance) but to avoid punishment as a result of blatant organisational deviance (sloppy work, production sabotage), employees might target CWBs towards fellow colleagues or subordinates in an attempt to get even with the organisation for not fulfilling their promises and obligations. Consequently, in the present study, it is argued that a PCB may lead to organisational and interpersonal deviance. Following this line of reasoning, it is hypothesised that PCB will have a direct positive effect on CWB.

Hypothesis 2[13]: Psychological contract breach has a significant positive effect on counterproductive work behaviours.

The next section will investigate the interplay between psychological contract breach, psychological contract violation and revenge cognitions.

2.11.2 Psychological contract breach, psychological contract violation and revenge cognitions

In line with affective events theory (AET; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), significant workplace events (e.g. perceived psychological contract breach) evoke affective reactions (e.g. psychological contract violation which is characterised by strong negative emotions including frustration, anger, disappointment) which in turn, predicts attitudinal outcomes (e.g., revenge cognitions) and these attitudinal outcomes in turn, predict deviant behaviours (e.g., CWB). Therefore, PCV (the affective reaction) is regarded as a proximal consequence of the breach which leads to revenge cognitions (attitudinal outcome) and resultant CWBs which are regarded as the distal consequences of the PCB (Zhao et al., 2007).

Indeed, a number of studies have provided empirical evidence supporting the mediating roles of PCV in the PCB-CWB relationship (Bordia et al., 2008; Matthijs Bal, De Lange, Jansen, Van, & Velde, 2008; Restubog et al., 2015; Suazo, 2009; Zhao et al., 2007). Based on the aforementioned argument, we hypothesise that PCV will mediate the relationship between PCB and CWB. In other words, besides the direct main effect between PCB and CWB we hypothesis that PCV fulfils a mediating role in the PCB-CWB relationship. To this end, it can be argued that influences PCV, which in turn influences RC and RC in turn influences CWB.

[13] *Hypothesis 1* constitutes the overarching substantive research hypothesis.

Thus, PCV represents an underlying mediating effect between PCB and CWB. Therefore, the following hypotheses are posed

Hypothesis 3: Psychological contract breach has a significant positive effect on *psychological contract violation.*

Hypothesis 4: Psychological contract violation has a significant positive effect on *revenge cognitions.*

Hypothesis 5: Psychological contract breach has a significant positive effect on *revenge cognitions.*

Hypothesis 6: Psychological contract violation has a significant mediating effect on the relationship between *psychological contract breach* and *revenge cognitions.*

The next section explores the interdependent nature of the relationships between psychological contract violation, revenge cognitions, self-control, and counterproductive work behaviour, as hypothesised in the proposed model.

2.11.3 Psychological contract violation, revenge cognitions and counterproductive work behaviour

Furthermore, affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) posits that a perception of PCV may lead to attitudinal outcomes (e.g., revenge cognitions) and behavioural outcomes such as CWB. As mentioned earlier, revenge may be used to restore equity or used as a mechanism through which pent up negative emotions (e.g., anger, frustration) can be released. As a result, revenge motivates the enactment of CWBs. Previous research has supported this proposition (Bordia et al., 2008). Hence, the following hypothesis is put forth

Hypothesis 7: *RC* has a significant positive effect on *CWB*

2.11.4 Revenge cognitions, self-control and counterproductive work behaviours

Drawing on self-control theory (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990), empirical research has found that compared to individuals with low self-control, individuals high in self-control are better able to constrain their impulses and desires and therefore better at controlling and regulating their thoughts, emotions and behaviours (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Muraven, & Tice, 1998). As such, it was shown that individuals with low self-control are more likely to engage in deviant behaviours such as using force, driving without a seatbelt, and fraudulent activities (Pratt & Cullen, 2000). In the workplace, self-control has been found to be negatively related to a broad range of undesirable CWBs (Marcus & Schuler, 2004). For example, Higgins, Wolfe, and Marcum (2008) found that employees with low self-control are more likely to engage in some form of information and communication technologies misuse (e.g., digital piracy). Similarly, Bordia et al.'s (2008) results supported a direct effect between self-control and CWB. Based

on these findings, we propose that there will be a direct effect between self-control and CWB and thus self-control will be negatively related to CWB. The hypothesis is formulated as follows

Hypothesis 8: Self-control will have a significant negative effect on CWB.

In addition to the direct effect between self-control and CWB, drawing on self-control theory (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990), Bordia et al. (2008) also found empirical support for the moderating role of self-control in the revenge cognitions-CWB relationship. As such, the extent to which an employee will act upon their desires for revenge will depend on their level of self-control. Therefore, the relationship between revenge cognitions and CWB becomes stronger depending on the employee's level of self-control. Employees with a high level of self-control are less likely to act upon their desire for revenge and thereby reduce their engagement in CWB, whereas employees with low self-control are more likely to act upon their desire for revenge and are more likely to engage in CWB. Following this line of reasoning, we further hypothesise that there is an interaction effect between self-control and revenge cognitions on CWB. Stated differently, self-control will moderate the relationship between revenge cognitions and CWB.

Hypothesis 9: Self-control will have a significant moderating effect on the relationship between revenge cognitions and CWB.

Since the primary objective of this study is to investigate the influence of EE on CWB, we argue that EE plays three roles in the CWB nomological net when a breach in the psychological contract is perceived. Firstly, its implication on the psychological contract, secondly, EE's moderating role in PCB-CWB relationship and thirdly, the interaction between EE and PCB to predict CWB.

2.11.5 Employee Entitlement and PCB

The first proposed role of EE is its implication on the psychological contract (Naumann et al., 2002). Expectations are often considered to be interconnected to the psychological contract (Paul et al., 2000; Van den Heuvel & Schalk, 2009) and reciprocity is considered as an essential element of the psychological contract (Westerlaken et al., 2016). Given that entitled individuals often develop unrealistic expectations in the employment relationship regardless of their performance and thus lack of reciprocity (Naumann et al., 2002), it can be argued that one's level of entitlement will create an imbalance and have a direct influence on the psychological contract.

From a situationally activated perspective, the extent to which employees are exposed to workplace situations that inherently have the potential to trigger entitlement perceptions (e.g., blanket salary increases regardless of performance), will influence an individual's level of entitlement in the workplace. Individuals with a high sense of entitlement are characterised by excessive self-regard and inflated self-perceptions and believe that they are automatically

entitled to and deserve preferential treatment and rewards regardless of their performance. As a result, individuals with a high sense of entitlement are predisposed to unmet expectations and broken promises and are thus more likely to perceive that the psychological contract has been breached (Naumann et al., 2002; Priesemuth & Taylor, 2016). Moreover, it has been suggested that individuals with a high sense of entitlement are inclined to perceive that they are treated unfairly even when the treatment they receive is proportionate to their actual inputs and performance (Harvey & Martinko, 2009).

This inclination further supports the notion that individuals with a high sense of entitlement are more likely to perceive that the psychological contract has been breached. Following this line of reasoning, it can, therefore, be hypothesised that employees with a high level of entitlement are more likely to perceive a contract breach whereas employees with a low level of entitlement are less likely to perceive a contract breach. As such, we hypothesise that EE and PCB will be positively correlated.

Hypothesis 10: EE and PCB will be positively correlated.

The next section investigates the interplay between employee entitlement, revenge cognitions, and counterproductive work behaviours.

2.11.6 Employee entitlement, revenge cognitions and counterproductive work behaviours

Since entitled employees are more likely to perceive that they are treated unfairly even when the treatment they receive is in accordance with their performance inputs (Harvey & Martinko, 2009) it seems credible to argue that individuals high in EE might experience desires for revenge when they feel that they have been wronged or unfairly treated. A recent study investigating the relationship between employee entitlement and revenge attitudes, found entitlement to be a significant predictor of desires for revenge (Westerlaken et al., 2011). Based on these findings we hypothesise that EE will predict revenge cognitions.

Hypothesis 11: Employee entitlement will have a significant positive effect on revenge cognitions.

Clear empirical links have been demonstrated between perceptions of injustice and CWB (Hershcovis et al., 2007; Martinko et al., 2002). Should an entitled employee's perception of injustice lead to revenge cognitions and given the fact that revenge is regarded as a motivator of aggressive behaviours (Bordia et al., 2008); it seems plausible to hypothesise that employees with a high sense of entitlement are more likely to experience revenge cognitions and their revenge cognitions will, in turn, predict engagement in retaliatory behaviours (CWB) (Westerlaken et al., 2011). Based on this argument, it is hypothesised that revenge cognitions will mediate the relationship between EE and CWB.

Hypothesis 12: Revenge cognitions will have a significant mediating effect on the relationship between EE and CWB.

2.11.7 The moderating role of employee entitlement

The intensity of the feeling of the PCB is determined by the cognitive interpretation following the breach (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Causal attributions forms part of this cognitive interpretation (Chao et al., 2011). Employees' reaction (e.g. CWB) to the PCB will be influenced by the causal attribution they ascribed to the breach. For instance, employees' decision whether to engage in CWB will be influenced by their perception of causal attributions of the breach. As such, employees are more likely to engage in CWB when they perceive that the breach was deliberately caused by the organisation than when the breach is attributed to factors out of the organisation's control (i.e. economic recession) (Chao et al., 2011). According to Naumann et al. (2002), employees with a high sense of entitlement often have unrealistic expectations of their employers. Additionally, given their tendency to consistently perceive that they have been unfairly treated (even when this is not the case), coupled with their self-serving attributional style (Harvey & Martinko, 2009) and thus attributing failures to external factors, it seems plausible to argue that entitled employees are more likely to perceive that a PCB is deliberately caused by the organisation and therefore more likely to engage in CWB. EE has been positively associated with several specific forms of CWB including, supervisor conflict (Harvey & Martinko, 2009), co-worker abuse (Harvey & Harris, 2010) and selfish behaviours (Zitek et al., 2010). As mentioned earlier, the positive association between PCB and CWB has also been empirically supported (Bordia et al., 2008; Chao et al., 2011; Restubog et al., 2015). Based on these studies, the third proposed role of EE in the CWB nomological net is the interaction between EE and PCB to predict CWB.

Drawing on self-attributional theory (Zuckerman, 1979) and the work of Harvey and Martinko (2009), employees with high EE will attribute a negative workplace situation (PCB) to external factors (i.e. blame the employer because they did not deliver on their promises) and thus disregard their role in the disparity between what is expected and what is received. Therefore, employees with high EE will selectively seek out causal information that reinforces their enduring positive self-image and purposefully ignore any feedback that contradicts this view which consequently reinforces their low need for cognition (Harvey & Martinko, 2009).

The level of EE will thus influence the extent to which the breach is perceived which in turn will determine the extent to which the employee will engage in CWB. In other words, the greater the level of EE, the greater the extent to which the breach is perceived which in turn will lead to an increase in engagement of CWB. Inversely, the lesser the level of employee entitlement, the lesser the extent to which the breach is perceived which in turn will lead to reduced engagement in CWB. EE has been conceptually proposed to moderate the

relationship between PCB and CWB but to the author's knowledge has never been empirically tested. As such, it is hypothesised that EE moderate the relationship between PCB and CWB.

Hypothesis: 13: EE will have a significant moderating effect on the relationship between PCB and CWB.

As mentioned earlier, the proposed model of CWB is in part a replication of the mediation model proposed and tested by Bordia et al. (2008). Bordia and his colleagues proposed and tested a model which included the cognitive (PCB), affective (PCV) and motivational (revenge cognitions) variables underpinning the engagement of CWB. Additionally, dispositional self-control was included as a self-regulatory mechanism influencing whether an employee will decide to engage in CWB or not. This study extended the model to include employee entitlement and examining its role in the PCB-CWB relationship. In the next section, we provide an in-depth discussion on the measuring instruments used to operationalise the latent variables of interest.

2.12 Measurement of the variables of interest

To evaluate the strength and nature of the hypothesised relationships in the model, the operationalisation of the variables is required. The next section presents measuring instruments that have previously been used to measure counterproductive work behaviour, employee entitlement, psychological contract breach, psychological contract violation, revenge cognitions and self-control. Additionally, the specific measures that were used in this study, are discussed.

2.12.1 Measurement of counterproductive work behaviour

In light of the fact that some forms of CWB can be overtly observed (e.g., absenteeism) whereas other more prevalent forms are not directly observable (e.g., theft, harassment, sabotage), objectively measuring CWB is an arduous task (Sackett & DeVore, 2001). In extant literature CWB is assessed in two ways, namely the widely used self-report measures which consist of behaviour checklists in which respondents indicate how often they engage in each behaviour, and the less common non-survey approaches which include archival data (Rotundo & Spector, 2010) and supervisor's judgement on the incumbent's rate of occurrence of CWBs (Sackett & DeVore, 2001). When assessing specific individual withdrawal behaviours such as absenteeism or turnover historical records are generally used (Rotundo & Spector, 2010).

Based on Robinson and Bennett's (1995) conceptual framework of workplace deviance, following a rigorous and robust instrument development and refinement process, Bennett and Robinson (2000) developed the widely used self-report instrument of CWB, the Workplace Deviance Scale (WDS). The objective of the WDS was to assess the extent to which

employees engaged in CWBs. More specifically, the extent to which employees engage in CWBs targeted at the organisation (organisational deviance) and CWBs targeted at other employees (interpersonal deviance). The final two-factor instrument comprises 12 items assessing organisational deviance and 7 items assessing interpersonal deviance. Internal consistency reliabilities for the two scales were .81 and .78 respectively (Sackett & DeVore, 2001). Another commonly used self-report measure is the Counterproductive work behaviour checklist (CWB-C; Spector et al., 2006), which is also a multi-item measure assessing a wide range of CWBs targeting the organisation (CWB-O) and its members (CWB-I).

Give that employees may not be willing to divulge engagement in CWBs for fear of punishment or retribution, the possibility of employees responding to self-report measures in a socially desirable manner is highly likely (Sackett & DeVore, 2001). In addition, employees are more inclined to underreport their engagement in CWB because of possible self-incrimination (Fox, Spector, Goh, & Bruursema, 2007). As a result, it has been argued that self-reports may not be a reliable representation of the extent to which employees engage in CWBs (Sackett & DeVore, 2001; Stewart, Bing, Davison, Woehr, & McIntyre, 2009). As a consequence of this perceived limitation, alternative methods of measuring CWB have been proposed such as supervisor or co-worker ratings (hereafter referred to as other-reports) (Fox et al., 2007; Stewart et al., 2009). Despite the concerns related to self-report measures, this approach also has important advantages. Firstly, employees who demonstrate covert CWBs are the only source that can accurately report the extent to which these behaviours occur. Secondly, allowing employees to anonymously report these behaviours reduces ethical concerns associated with other rating reports (Fox & Spector as cited in Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt, 2012), and thirdly, it is easier to administer self-report measures than to obtain supervisor and co-worker ratings.

A risk associated with other-reports is the potential negative consequences for the employees on which they are reporting (Berry et al., 2012). Other disadvantages of other-reports include halo error bias by a supervisor or other colleagues (Sackett & DeVore, 2001) or the possibility that supervisors and colleagues may not be able to observe employees engaging in CWB due to a lack of adequate opportunity (Berry et al., 2012). Likewise, it would be exceptionally difficult to detect covert behaviours due to the fact that employees specifically opt for these behaviours because it is harder to be detected by others.

A recent meta-analysis aimed at investigating the incremental validity of other-reports over self-report measures found that other-reports of CWB and self-reports are moderately correlated (.38). Furthermore, this correlation strengthens (e.g., in the .4 –.6 range) when the ratings pertain to interpersonal deviance and when greater anonymity is guaranteed (Berry et al., 2012). The results further indicated that self and other-reports of CWB showed similar

patterns and strength of relationships with common correlates (Big Five personality traits, negative affectivity, demographic variables, justice perceptions, interpersonal conflict, organisational constraints and organisational citizenship behaviours). Additionally, self-report measures indicated greater engagement in CWB compared to other-report measures. In light of this empirical evidence, a self-report measure was used in this study to assess CWB. More specifically, the Workplace Deviance Scale (WDS; Bennett & Robinson, 2000) which is the most commonly used validated self-report measure of deviant behaviour was used to operationalise CWB in this study (Berry et al., 2007; Rotundo & Spector, 2010).

2.12.2 Measurement of employee entitlement

The next question that needs addressing is: how would one reliably operationalise employee entitlement? Two trait entitlement instruments have emerged in the extant literature namely the Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI; Raskin & Hall, 1981; Raskin & Terry, 1988), the Psychological Entitlement Scale (PES; Campbell et al., 2004) and more recently the Mixed Measure of Employee Entitlement (MEE; Westerlaken et al., 2016). Each instrument is based on a different perspective of entitlement as is discussed in the following paragraphs.

2.12.2.1 Narcissistic Personality Inventory

The Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI; Raskin & Hall, 1981; Raskin & Terry, 1988) was one of the earliest measures of the entitlement construct. Although entitlement in this study is regarded as distinct from narcissism, in acknowledgement of entitlement's alignment to narcissism, the NPI will be briefly explained. The NPI is a widely used scale to measure subclinical narcissism (Pincus & Lukowitsky, 2010). Using principal-component analysis, Raskin and Terry (1988) found support for a general construct of narcissism as well as seven components namely, authority, exploitativeness, exhibitionism, vanity, superiority, self-sufficiency, and entitlement. Entitlement is thus a key component of narcissism and must be present in order to diagnose subclinical narcissism. The authors define the entitlement subscale as ‘‘involving the expectation of special privileges over others and special exemptions from normal social demands" (Raskin & Terry, 1988, p. 890). Several studies investigating the factor structure of the NPI have yielded varying results. For example, support was found for a four-factor solution including entitlement (Emmons, 1984; Watson, Grisham, Trotter, & Biderman, 1984); a three-factor solution including "being a special person" (Kubarych, Deary, & Austin, 2004); and more recently a three-factor solution including an entitlement/exploitativeness subscale (Ackerman et al., 2011). As a result, use of the NPI has resulted in fragmented and inconsistent data collection and analyses (Jordan et al., 2016). Additionally, several scholars have found issues with its face validity and internal reliability specifically relating to the entitlement subscale (Campbell et al., 2004; Moeller, Crocker, & Bushman, 2009; Pryor et al., 2008). In light of these varying results and measurement

artefacts, researchers have called for a unique measurement of normative entitlement (Campbell et al., 2004; Miller et al., 2012). Towards this end, Campbell et al. (2004) developed the Psychological Entitlement Scale (PES) as an alternative measure to the NPI.

2.12.2.2 Psychological Entitlement Scale

Campbell et al., (2004) developed and validated the prominent Psychological Entitlement Scale (PES), which operationalises normative entitlement as a stand-alone construct within the general population. Using an experimental design, the authors conducted nine validation studies and found that although psychological entitlement correlated positively with the NPI entitlement subscale this correlation was small (r = .33, p < .0001). This result provided support that the PES can be used to operationalise entitlement that is different from the NPI entitlement subscale. Further results from their nine validation studies indicated that individuals with high levels of psychological entitlement were more willing to take candy from children, felt that they were more deserving of pay in a hypothetical employment setting, demonstrated more selfishness and competitiveness when participating in a challenge and more selfishness in romantic relationships, demonstrated greater greed, lower empathy and perspective taking, are less likely to accommodate others, demonstrated lower empathy and reported more aggressive behaviour towards individuals delivering negative feedback. Furthermore, a weak positive relationship (r = .13, p < .50) was found between psychological entitlement and self-esteem and weak negative relationships were found between psychological entitlement and the personality traits of agreeableness (r = -.19, p < .50) and emotional stability (r = -.16, p < .50) (Campbell et al., 2004). These results provide empirical support for the distinction between psychological entitlement and the Big Five factors. Overall, these findings showed that the PES operationalises a less maladaptive form of entitlement, which has significant links to negative behaviours and supported the premise that entitlement can be differentiated from other personality traits (Jordan et al., 2016). In addition, the PES has reported acceptable reliability and validity in measuring general entitlement as a trait in extant literature (Campbell et al., 2004; Moeller et al., 2009; Pryor et al., 2008)

In the absence of an instrument that operationalises entitlement in the work context, several researchers have relied on the PES to serve this purpose (Harvey & Martinko, 2009; Harvey & Harris, 2010; Zitek et al., 2010). As mentioned earlier, the PES measures entitlement in a general, non-work context and regards entitlement as a stable trait across all situations. An alternative perspective is to view entitlement as a latent construct which can be triggered by specific situations or context (Fisk, 2010; Jordan et al., 2016; Naumann et al., 2002), rather than solely as a personality trait. As a proponent of the situationally activated perspective and considering the fact that an employee entitlement instrument was lacking in the work entitlement literature, Westerlaken et al. (2016) developed and validated the Measure of Employee Entitlement (MEE).

2.12.2.3 Measure of Employee Entitlement (MEE)

The MEE is not only the first instrument to measure entitlement in the work context but also captures trait and state elements of employee entitlement, and thus considering the situations in the work context that may trigger entitlement. The MEE is an 18-item self-report measure encompassing three subscales namely Reward as a Right, Self-focus and Excessive Self-regard. Firstly, the *Reward as a Right* subscale comprises nine items which capture the notion that expectations of reward, remuneration and recognition are an automatic right and all other factors in the workplace are disregarded. Secondly, the *Self-focus* subscale comprises five items which emphasise the "focus on self to the exclusion of others, as well as a desire for differential or special treatment" (Westerlaken et al., 2016, p.396). *Excessive Self-regard* is the third and final subscale and comprises four items which tap into the entitled employee's perception of the valuable contribution they offer in the employment relationship.

Overall, the MEE showed acceptable reliability (α = .88) and α = .86 for the re-test. In addition, all three subscales showed acceptable reliability and the inter-correlations were found to be significant at the .01 level and thus supported the MEE as a unitary measure (Westerlaken et al., 2016). Furthermore, the MEE demonstrated convergent validity in that a significant, albeit moderate, positive correlation was found with the PES (Campbell et al., 2004). However, the MEE captures entitlement in relation to an employee's role in the workplace (e.g., 'I deserve to be paid more than others') whereas the PES captures a general belief of entitlement (e.g., 'I feel entitled to more of everything') (Westerlaken et al., 2016).

Despite being a relatively new measure of employee entitlement that has been introduced to the literature, the MEE measures employee entitlement in the work context and specifically captures entitlement as both a trait and a situationally activated variable. In light of these advantages, the MEE was considered a plausible and appropriate instrument to operationalise employee entitlement in the present study.

2.12.3 Measurement of psychological contract breach (PCB) and psychological contract violation (PCV)

A recent meta-analysis of the impact of psychological contract breach on workplace outcomes found that psychological contract breach can be measured in three ways, namely with a composite measure, a global measure and a weighted measure (Zhao et al., 2007). A composite measure includes several content-specific items of the psychological contract (e.g., high salaries, training and development, and job security). Respondents are asked to what extent the organisation has fulfilled its obligation for each item. A global measure does not include content-specific items but rather assesses respondents' overall perceptions of the extent to which the organisation has fulfilled its obligations. An example of an item included in a global measure (Robinson & Morrison, 2000) states; "Almost all the promises made by my

employer during recruitment have been kept thus far" (p.539). Lastly, a weighted measure is similar to the composite measure in that it includes content-specific items, but respondents are also asked to indicate the level of importance of each content item. These two scores are computed to yield a weighted breach score. Most empirical studies measuring the psychological contract breach either use composite or global measures. As part of their meta-analysis, Zhao et al. (2007) also examined the moderating effect of the type of psychological contract breach measures in the breach - outcome relationship. Results showed global measures which do not include content-specific items had a larger effect size than composite measures which include content-specific items. Possible explanations for this moderation effect can be attributed to the fact that global measures are not restricted to content-specific items but are able to evaluate the full spectrum of the psychological contract content. This is in line with the previous critique of the composite measure, that it restricts individuals to evaluate selected content-specific items which may not be relevant or of value to a given employee (McLean Parks, Kidder, & Gallagher, 1998). In addition, when making use of composite measure to measure psychological contract breach, there is a possibility that respondents will unconsciously weigh the importance of each content-specific item in the same manner as when assessing global breach. Therefore, when the research focus is not a specific type of content (e.g. salaries), a global measure is recommended (Zhao et al., 2007). As a result, Robinson and Morrison's (2000) global measure of psychological contract breach and psychological contract violation is used in this current study to operationalise the psychological contract breach and psychological contract violation respectively. Next, we examine methods of assessing revenge attitudes.

2.12.4 Measurement of revenge cognitions (RC)

In the extant literature, the revenge subscale of The Forgiveness scale (Wade, 1989) is one of the scales used to operationalise revenge in the workplace and has consistently demonstrated acceptable psychometric properties (Bordia et al., 2008; Bradfield & Aquino, 1999; Restubog et al., 2015). In their study, Bordia et al. (2008) used four items measuring thoughts of revenge drawn from The Forgiveness Scale (Wade, 1989) e.g. “I’m going to get even”. The scale demonstrated acceptable internal consistency with a coefficient alpha of .90. Bradfield and Aquino (1999) also used items from the Forgiveness Scale (Wade, 1989) to assess thoughts of revenge in the workplace and also found acceptable internal consistency ($\alpha = .88$). In the present study, revenge is regarded as a cognitive variable because individuals often think about and plan their revenge prior to acting (Bies & Tripp, 1995, 2001) and will be operationalised as revenge cognitions using items from The Forgiveness Scale (Wade, 1989). Next, we examine methods of assessing self-control.

2.12.5 Measurement of self-control (SC)

Given that the lack of self-control is central to many undesirable behaviours, it is important to assess dispositional self-control with a valid and reliable measure (De Ridder et al., 2012). A number of self-control measures have been used in extant literature including the Barratt Impulsiveness Scale (BIS; Patton, Stanford, & Barratt, 1995), the Low-Self Control Scale (LSCS; Grasmick, Tittle, Bursik, & Arneklev, 1993), and the Brief Self-Control Scale (BSCS, Tangney et al., 2004). A recent meta-analysis reviewing the relationship between dispositional self-control and behaviour, found that in comparison to BIS (Patton et al., 1995) and the LSCS (Grasmick et al.,1993) the BSCS (Tangney et al., 2004) demonstrated stronger relationships with overall behaviour across various life domains (De Ridder et al., 2012). The validation of the BSCS (Tangney et al., 2004) demonstrated a desirable internal consistency alpha of α = .83 and continues to be a widely-used measure of dispositional self-control among adolescents, adults, and students (Baay, De Ridder, Eccles, van der Lippe, & van Aken, 2014; De Ridder et al., 2012).

Several researchers, however, have questioned its utility as a unidimensional construct, as was original suggested (De Ridder, de Boer, Lugtig, Bakker, & van Hooft, 2011; Ferrari, Stevens, & Jason, 2009; Maloney, Grawitch, & Barber, 2012). In response to this ambiguity, some researchers suggested alternative multidimensional factor structures (Ferrari et al., 2009; Maloney et al., 2012; De Ridder et al., 2011). Maloney et al. (2012) conducted an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and found support for a two-factor solution for the BSCS (restraint factor, 4 items and impulsivity factor, 4 items) which they asserted provided a better representation of the scale's internal structure and increased the scale's ability to predict psychological and behavioural outcomes. Ferrari et al. (2009) also applied EFA and extracted two factors which they labelled as General self-discipline (9 items) and Impulse control (4 items). Even though both authors extracted two factors, different items subsets were suggested to specify distinct factors of self-control.

In light of these type of inconsistencies, Morean et al. (2014) undertook a rigorous psychometric evaluation of three prominent measures of impulsivity which included Tangney et al.'s (2004) BSCS. Using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), the latent factor structure of the original scale, as well as the alternative, suggested factor structures were evaluated but could not be replicated. As a result, Morean et al. (2014) used the data of 1449 individuals and conducted EFA and CFA and identified a psychometrically improved, abridged version of the BSCS comprising seven items and two factors (i.e., Self-discipline and Impulse control) (RMSEA = .05, CFI = .96). Besides reflecting a stable, replicable internal factor structure and acceptable internal consistency (Self-discipline α = .70; Impulse control α = .75), Morean et al.'s (2014) version further demonstrated scalar measurement invariance which increased the instrument's power to make meaningful comparisons across subgroups (i.e., sex, race, age).

In this study, Morean et al.'s (2014) abridged version of the BSCS (Tangney et al., 2004) will be used to operationalise self-control.

2.13 Chapter summary

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of employee entitlement on counterproductive work behaviours. More specifically, psychological contract breach as a motivational antecedent to CWB is examined and the role of employee entitlement in this relationship. This chapter provided an in-depth account of extant research relating to latent variables in the proposed model, namely counterproductive work behaviour, employee entitlement, psychological contract breach, psychological contract violation, revenge cognitions, and self-control. Following a critical review of the extant literature, a set of hypotheses were developed which served as the basis of the model. Additionally, the measuring instruments used to operationalise the latent variables were discussed. The following chapter will provide a thorough description of the research methods that were used to empirically test the proposed hypotheses.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

It is vital for industrial psychologists, HR practitioners and managers to understand employees' excessive entitlement perceptions and how these perceptions may in turn influence behaviour. Following the literature review, this chapter introduces the research design and methodology that was applied throughout the research process to answer the research-initiating question: "How does employee entitlement influence CWB in a South African context?". A theoretical argument derived from the literature review (Chapter 2) culminated in a proposed conceptual structural model comprising structural relationships between the latent variables[14], as depicted in Figure 2.6. This conceptual structural model describes the psychological mechanism that determines the extent to which employees' entitlement perceptions will motivate the engagement in CWB when the psychological contract has been breached. In other words, the structural model attempts to provide a plausible answer to the research initiating question.

To determine the nature of the relationships between the latent variables it is necessary to evaluate the fit[15] of the conceptual structural model by empirically investigating the proposed hypotheses. The research methodology used to test the conceptual structural model, therefore, plays an essential role in ensuring sound scientific explanations of the nature of these relationships. This first section of this chapter sets out the substantive research hypotheses, followed by a graphical representation of the theoretical structural model. Thereafter, the selected research procedure, sampling choice and data collection process will be discussed. An overview of the measuring instruments that were used to operationalise each latent variable, as well as an in-depth discussion of the statistical analyses that were conducted throughout the research process, are discussed. Altogether, the research design and methodologies selected are aimed at achieving the research objectives, namely to develop and empirically assess a structural model depicting the relationships between psychological contract breach, as a trigger for CWB, and the influence of employees' entitlement perceptions on these behaviours.

3.2 Substantive research hypotheses

Science contends that the theoretical argument developed through theorising should be empirically tested to ascertain its validity. The conceptual model presented (Figure 2.6) represents the overarching substantive research hypothesis which was formulated from the

[14] A term used to describe variables that cannot be directly observed (e.g., attitude) but rather inferred from variables that can be directly measured which are referred to as observed variables or indicator variables. (Schreiber et al., 2006).

[15] Fitting a model refers to the ability of the model to reproduce the data (Little, 2014).

literature review. The overarching substantive research hypothesis is expressed in terms of latent variables which form the substantive research hypotheses (Theron, 2016). The overarching substantive research hypothesis signifies the stance that the conceptual model provides a permissible response to the research initiating question.

The overarching substantive research hypothesis (Hypothesis 1) of this study, is that the structural model depicted in Figure 3.1 provides a plausible account of the psychological process or mechanism underlying employees' level of engagement in counterproductive work behaviour when a psychological contract breach occurs and the extent to which their level of entitlement perceptions influences these behaviours. The overarching substantive research hypothesis can be dissected into the following, more detailed, path-specific substantive research hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2: *Psychological contract breach* has a significant positive effect on *counterproductive work behaviour.*

Hypothesis 3*: Psychological contract breach* has a significant positive effect on *psychological contract violation.*

Hypothesis 4: Psychological contract violation has a significant positive effect on *revenge cognitions.*

Hypothesis 5: Psychological contract breach has a significant positive effect on *revenge cognitions.*

Hypothesis 6: Psychological contract violation has a significant mediating effect on the relationship between *psychological contract breach* and *revenge cognitions.*

Hypothesis 7: *Revenge cognitions* has a significant positive effect on *counterproductive work behaviour.*

Hypothesis 8: Self-control has a significant negative effect on *counterproductive work behaviour.*

Hypothesis 9: *Self-control* has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between *revenge cognitions* and *counterproductive work behaviour*.

Hypothesis 10: *Employee entitlement* and *psychological contract breach* is positively correlated.

Hypothesis 11: *Employee entitlement* has a significant positive effect on *revenge cognitions.*

Hypothesis 12: *Revenge cognitions* has a significant mediating effect on the relationship between *employee entitlement* and *counterproductive work behaviour*.

Hypothesis 13: Employee entitlement has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between *psychological contract breach* and *counterproductive work behaviour.*

3.3 The theoretical structural model

The aforementioned research hypotheses can be graphically depicted in the form of a path diagram as shown in the proposed structural model in Figure 3.1. The structural model can be understood as an illustration of the hypothesised causal relationships among a set of plausible latent variables (also referred to as constructs), which are represented by an array of indicator variables[16] (Hayduk, Cummings, Boadu, Pazderka-Robinson, & Boulianne, 2007). Also included in the structural model are dummy variables, indicated by an asterisk "*". These dummy variables were created to signify the interaction effect between a specific moderating variable and the independent variable, which is suggested to influence the dependent variable (CWB) (Langenhoven, 2015). Table 3.1 provides a list of the latent variables which form part of the structural model in Figure 3.1.

Table 3.1

Summary of Latent Variables in the Employee Entitlement – Counterproductive Work Behaviours Structural Model	
η_1	Psychological contract violation (PCV)
η_2	Revenge Cognitions (RC)
η_3	Counterproductive work behaviour (CWB)
ξ_1	Psychological contract breach (PCB)
ξ_2	Employee Entitlement (EE)
ξ_3	Self-control (SC)
ξ_4	Psychological contract breach (PCB)* Employee Entitlement (EE) influences CWB
ξ_5	Revenge Cognitions (RC)* Self-control influences CWB

The structural model is depicted using the LISREL notational convention, which represents the relationships in the structural model. PCV, RC and CWB are the dependent or endogenous[17] variables, which are indicated by the symbol eta (η). PCB and EE are the independent or exogenous[18] variables indicated by the symbol ksi (ξ). In its basic form, the substantive research hypotheses can be understood as η_l, is a linear function of ξ (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). As mentioned earlier, the structural model is graphically portrayed as a path diagram. In other words, various paths exist between the latent variables, which represent the relationships between the latent variables in the model. The path between

[16] Also known as manifest, observed or measured variables and are the actual responses to a Likert type scale item (e.g., ranging from 5 (strongly disagree) to 1 (strongly agree) (Schreiber et al., 2006).

[17] Variables that are influenced by one or more other variables in the structural model are called endogenous variables (Hair et al., 2017)

[18] Variables that are not influenced by other variables in the structural model are called exogenous variables. (Hair et al., 2017).

the exogenous and endogenous variables represents a directional causal relationship and is denoted with the Greek letter gamma[19] (γ). While the path between the endogenous variables, also representing a directional causal relationship, is indicated with Greek letter beta[20] (β) (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000).

Due to structural errors in the model, endogenous variables are not entirely explained by the hypothesised variables and are most likely also influenced by structural error terms. The structural error term (also referred to as residual terms) associated with each η, represent all relevant systematic sources that cause variance in η, which is not formally acknowledged by the model and is represented with the Greek letter zeta (ζ) (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). The variance in and the covariances between the ζ's are presented in the psi matrix (Ψ). The variance in and the covariances between the exogenous latent variables is indicated with the Greek letter phi (ϕ) and are reflected in the Phi matrix (Φ). The overarching hypothesis can be expressed as a structural model which includes reference to the Ψ and Φ matrices.

The objective of this research is to determine whether the proposed structural model offers a valid and plausible explanation in response to the research initiating question.

[19] Gamma (γ) represents the slope of the regression of η_i on ξ_j .
[20] Beta (β) represents the slope of the regression of η_i on η_j.

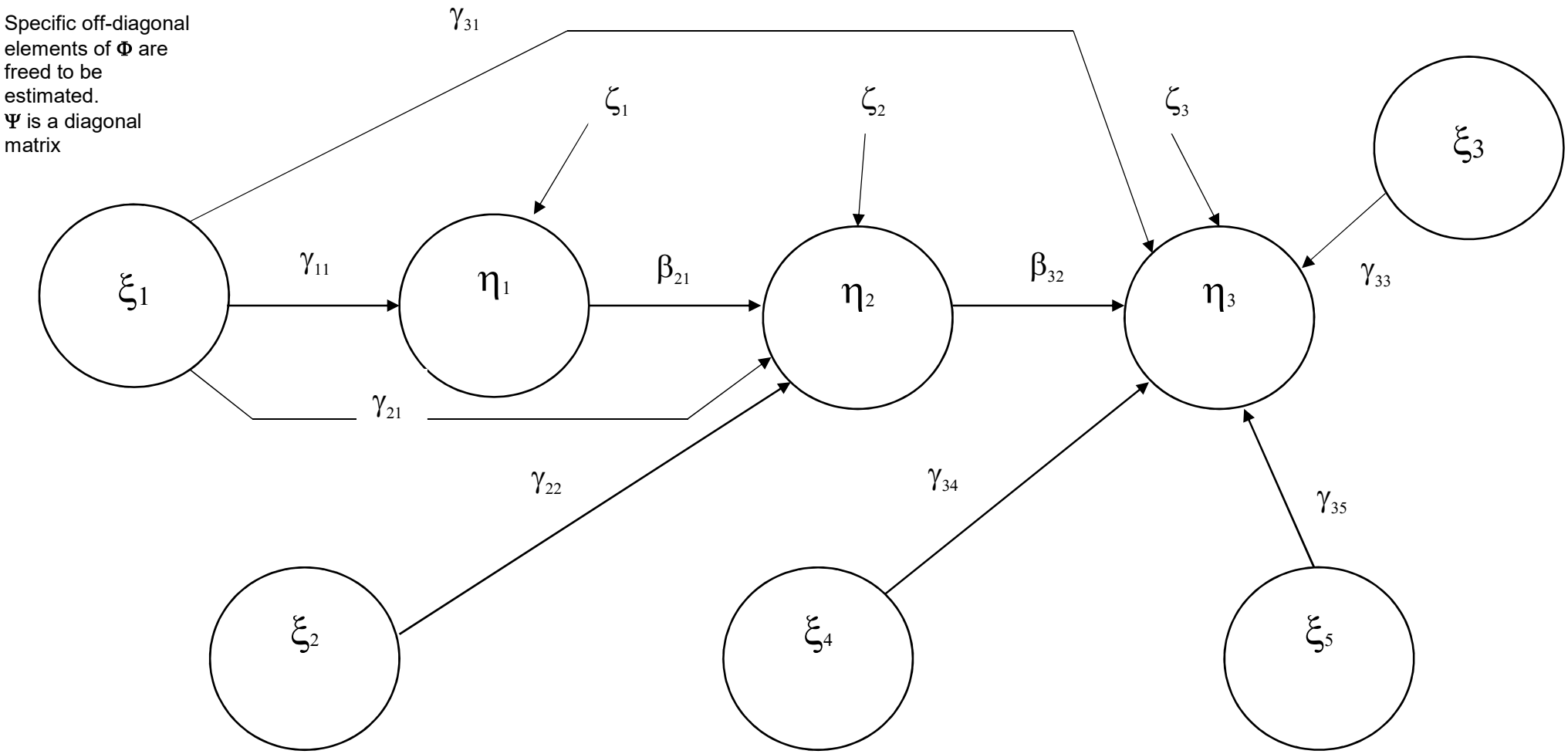

Figure 3.1. The employee entitlement – counterproductive work behaviours structural model

3.4 Research design

The research design serves as a plan or guideline of how the researcher intends to empirically test the substantive research hypotheses (Kerlinger & Lee, 2007). The primary purpose of the research design is to ensure that systematic variance is maximised, error variance is minimised and systematic non-relevant variance is controlled (Kerlinger & Lee, 2007).

To empirically investigate the overarching substantive hypothesis as well as the several more detailed, path-specific substantive research hypotheses, a statistical approach is required that will provide unambiguous, empirical evidence to evaluate the hypotheses. The substantive research hypotheses make specific assertions with regards to the extent to which employees will engage in counterproductive work behaviour when a psychological contract breach occurs and the influence of their entitlement perceptions on these behaviours

For this research, a non-experimental, *ex-post facto* cross-sectional correlational design was used to evaluate the overarching and the substantive hypotheses. A non-experimental study relies purely on the measurement of the variables and there is no intervention from the researcher. An *ex-post facto* research design is ideal in social science studies when the manipulation of the independent or predictor variables are not feasible or unethical. The objective of the *ex-post facto* correlational design is to ascertain what happens to one variable when the other variables change. Subsequently, inferences about the hypothesised relationships between the latent variables ξ and η can be made from the associated variations in the independent and dependent variables (Kerlinger & Lee, 2007).

Furthermore, a cross-sectional[21] study was conducted to collect data from a selected sample of employees. This observable data was used to make inferences and confirm previous research and more specifically to ascertain whether the proposed structural model provides a plausible answer to the research initiating question. To determine whether the proposed structural model does, in fact, provide a permissible response to the research initiating question, the structural relationships between the latent variables and between the indicator variables and the underlying latent variables must be analysed. To this end, structural equation modelling (SEM) and more specifically, partial least squares structural modelling (PLS) was used as the primary statistical analysis technique to evaluate the relationships between the latent constructs. Prior to discussing the selected statistical analyses, the sampling design is discussed.

[21] A cross-sectional study provides a snapshot of the observable data of the sample at a specific point in time (Salkind, 2010).

3.5 Sample, sampling design and data collection procedure

The logic underlying sampling is to collect data from a representative sample of the total target population. The target population in this study was full-time, permanent employees employed by South African organisations. To participate in the study, participants were required to be proficient in the English language with a minimum education level of Grade 12. As it would be impractical to obtain data from all employees in South Africa that meet these requirements, a subset of employees at a higher education institution was invited to participate in the study, which constituted the sample of employees from which data was collected. The sample was selected using a non-probability convenience sampling technique. A convenience sample is one which is easily accessible to the researcher or participants that are conveniently available to participate in the study (Bryman, 2016). This sampling method is ideal when it is impractical to conduct a survey with the entire population as it may be too costly or time-consuming. Given that a non-probability convenience sample is selected based on accessibility and availability, selection bias is a possibility and the researcher, therefore, cannot state that the sample is representative of the target population or even the sampling population. Therefore, valid inferences about the larger target population cannot be made from a convenience sample (Bryman, 2016). Despite the drawback of compromising generalisability, this technique was selected because it is quick, cost-effective, and convenient. The next section addresses the appropriate sample size for this study.

As alluded to earlier, the multivariate statistical technique PLS SEM will be used to evaluate the extent to which the theory fits the data. This technique will be discussed in greater detail in section 3.8. Nevertheless, in terms of sampling, PLS-SEM does not require an excessively large sample size as is the case with its CB-SEM counterpart. However, as is the case with any multivariate statistical analyses, an adequate sample size ensures that the results of the analyses have adequate statistical power, are robust and increases the generalisability of the model (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2017). Depending on the complexity of the model a recommended sample size of 370 observations were used as a guide for this study (Bentler & Chou, 1987).

Permission to conduct the study was requested from a South African higher education institution through its institutional permission and ethical clearance processes. Data collection commenced after ethical clearance had been obtained. The institution's management was asked to provide written permission that access would be given to their employees. An email with a link to the composite questionnaire was sent to all full-time employees. Participants were required to consent to the conditions in the instructions of the questionnaire. The selected sample was a result of employees' availability and willingness to participate in the study. To ensure that the confidentiality and anonymity of the participants, all data was collected

anonymously and exported to a Microsoft Excel database. The exported data was only accessible to the researcher and stored on a password-protected computer. This data served as the input for the statistical analyses and stored on the Stellenbosch University server for a period of 5 years after the completion of the study and would then be discarded. Participants were assured that the study would not result in any potential risks or discomfort to them and that no individual responses would be revealed to managers (See Appendix A for informed consent form). The ethical considerations that were explored as part of this study are briefly discussed next.

3.6 Ethical considerations

It is the responsibility of the researcher to ensure that their dignity, rights, safety, and well-being are not jeopardised as a result of participation. Participation in the research was explicitly voluntary. The research participant has the right to make an informed decision whether to participate or not. To enable participants to make an informed decision and to provide informed consent, each participant was supplied with the following information, namely:

- the objective and purpose of the research;
- what participation in the research will entail;
- how the results of the study will be disseminated and whether participants can expect to benefit in any way, monetarily or otherwise, from participating in the study;
- the identity of the researchers and their affiliations;
- contact information if they have problems or queries related to the research process;
- their rights as research participants as well as where they can obtain more information regarding their research rights.

The information provided to potential research participants was easily understood by the participants. The informed consent formulation was integrated as a preamble in the online survey questionnaire as shown in Appendix B. In addition to obtaining informed consent and given the sensitive nature of the research question addressed in this study, namely the influence of employee engagement on the engagement of counterproductive work behaviour, the anonymity and confidentiality of participants was ensured at all stages of the research process. The data collection was treated as confidential and only aggregate results were reported on. An application for ethical clearance of the proposed research study was submitted to the Research Ethics Committee for Human Research (Humanities) of Stellenbosch University. Only once ethical clearance was received, did the data collection process commence. Next, we provide an overview of the measuring instruments which were used in this study.

3.7 Measuring instruments

To test the substantive research hypotheses presented in section 3.2, empirical data is required. This is achieved through the operationalisation of, the latent variables. Valid scientific inferences can only be made from research data if psychometrically sound measuring instruments are used to operationalise the latent variables. To be considered as a meaningful, psychometrically sound instrument, a measure must possess a stable latent factor structure, demonstrate construct validity, criterion validity, internal consistency reliability, and exhibit measurement invariance (Morean et al., 2014). Therefore, valid and reliable conclusions can only be drawn when the selected measurement instruments possess these necessary psychometric properties. Since SEM is essentially based on the covariances between indicator variables and between indicator variables and the underlying latent variable it purports to measure, psychometrically sound instruments are crucial. The next section will provide an overview of each measuring instrument that was selected to operationalise the latent variables in the hypothesised structural model (Figure 3.1). The composite questionnaire that was sent to the employees comprised several questions from these selected measuring instruments. See Appendix B for the items that were included in the composite questionnaire.

3.7.1 Counterproductive work behaviour ($\eta 3$)

The Workplace Deviance Scale (WDS) developed by Bennett and Robinson (2000) was selected to measure the extent to which employees engage in deviant or counterproductive behaviours. The WDS was chosen because of its ability to assess a wide range of CWBs in general, rather than focussing on specific forms of behaviour. During the construct validation process, both scales (ID and OD) demonstrated acceptable internal consistency with Cronbach alphas of $\alpha = .81$ for the Organisational Deviance scale and $\alpha = .78$ for the Interpersonal Deviance scale (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). The final two-factor instrument comprises 12 items assessing organisational deviance and 7 items assessing interpersonal deviance. An example of an item assessing ID is; “In the last three months, how often have you made fun of someone at work?”. Whereas, an example of an item assessing OD is; “In the last three months, how often have you taken property from work without permission?” These 12 items were measured by means of a 5-point Likert type scale, ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always). As mentioned earlier, PLS-SEM uses proxies to represent the latent constructs of interest, consequently weighted composite scores of the indicator variables in the subscales were used to serve as indicators of the latent variables.

3.7.2 Employee Entitlement (ξ_2)

The Measure of Employee Entitlement (MEE) developed by Westerlaken et al. (2016) was selected to assess the entitlement perceptions of employees. The MEE's capability to evaluate trait and state elements of employee entitlement is the primary reason for its selection in this study. Therefore, this scale acknowledges that employee entitlement perceptions may be triggered in certain work situations. The MEE is an 18-item self-report measure, encompassing three subscales namely Reward as a Right, Self-focus and Excessive Self-regard. Firstly, the *Reward as a Right* subscale comprised nine items which capture the notion that expectations of reward, remuneration and recognition are an automatic right, and all other factors in the workplace are disregarded. A sample item is: "I expect regular pay increases regardless of how the organisation performs". Secondly, the *Self-focus* subscale comprised five items which emphasise the "focus on self to the exclusion of others, as well as a desire for differential or special treatment" (Westerlaken et al., 2016, p.396). A sample item is: "I expect to be able to take breaks whenever I want". *Excessive Self-regard* is the third and final subscale of this measure and comprised four items which tap into the entitled employee's perceptions of the valuable contribution they offer in the employment relationship. A sample item is: "I believe I have exceptional skills and abilities".

On the whole, the MEE showed acceptable internal reliability (α = .88) and re-test reliability (α = .86). In addition, all three subscales demonstrated acceptable reliability, and the inter-correlations were found to be significant at the .01 level; thus supported the MEE as a unitary measure (Westerlaken et al., 2016). Furthermore, the MEE demonstrated convergent validity in that a significant, albeit moderate, positive correlation was found with the Psychological Entitlement Scale (PES, r = .52) (Campbell et al., 2004).

As a relatively new measure of employee entitlement, which has been introduced to the literature, no studies using the MEE have yet been reported. However, in light of the fact that the MEE assesses employee entitlement in the work context, and specifically captures entitlement as both a trait and a situationally activated variable, it was deemed a plausible instrument. For this specific study, the items were measured by means of a 5-point Likert type scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

3.7.3 Psychological contract breach (ξ_1) and psychological contract violation (η_1)

Robinson and Morrison's (2000) frequently used global measure of psychological contract breach and psychological contract violation was used to operationalise these latent variables in this study. Global measures that do not include content-specific items (i.e., salaries, training and development, and job security) demonstrate larger effect size than composite measures which include content-specific items (Zhao et al., 2007). Given that this study evaluates

psychological contract in a global manner and assesses respondents' overall perceptions of the extent to which the organisation has fulfilled its obligations, warranted the selection of Robinson and Morrison's (2000) global measure of psychological contract breach.

This measure comprises two factors namely a psychological contract breach factor (5-items) and a psychological contract violation factor (4-items). A sample item assessing psychological contract breach is: “My employer has broken many of its promises to me even though I’ve upheld my side of the deal”. Whereas, a sample item assessing psychological contract violation is: “I feel a great deal of anger towards my organisation”. The five items of the PCB subscale and the four items of the PCV subscale were assessed by using a 5-point Likert type scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

In a recent study examining the mediating mechanisms between psychological contract breach and CWB, PCB and PCV were operationalised by means of Robinson and Morrison's (2000) global measure of psychological contract (Bordia et al., 2008). The scale demonstrated sound internal consistency (α =.74) for the PCB factor, and α = .85 for PCV factor.

3.7.4 Revenge cognitions (η_2)

The revenge subscale of the Wade Forgiveness scale (WFS; Wade, 1989) was used in the present study to operationalise thoughts of revenge in the workplace. The WFS (Wade, 1989) was developed as part of a doctoral dissertation research study to assess interpersonal forgiveness. The final scale comprised 20 items and nine factors. The dissertation does not provide a detailed account of the procedure used but reported a desirable internal consistency reliability of α = .94. Likewise, Bradfield and Aquino (1999) used items from the WFS (Wade, 1989) to assess thoughts of revenge in the workplace and also found acceptable internal consistency (α = .88).

While several of the factors seem to explain interpersonal forgiveness only two of the scales namely the Avoidance and Revenge subscales, capture the distinct aspects of an individual’s interpersonal motivation directed toward the offence and the offender (McCullough et al., 1998). In addition to consistently demonstrating acceptable psychometric properties across various studies (Bordia et al., 2008; Bradfield & Aquino, 1999; Restubog, Zagenczyk, Bordia, Bordia, & Chapman, 2015), the revenge subscale of WFS (Wade, 1989) captures the employee’s rumination prior to acting upon their vengeful emotions and therefore regards revenge as a cognitive variable which is similar to this study’s conceptualisation of the construct. In light of these desirable characteristics, the revenge subscale of WFS appeared to be a credible scale to use to operationalise revenge cognitions. The 5 items from the revenge subscale were used and measured on a 6-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). Employees were asked to indicate their thoughts and

feelings about a person who recently offended or hurt them in the workplace. A sample item is: “I’m going to get even”.

3.7.5 Self-control (ξ_3)

In this study, self-control was operationalised as a rating on the abridged Brief Self-control Scale (BSCS) proposed by Morean et al., 2014. The BSCS (Morean et al., 2014) comprises seven items and two factors (i.e., *Self-discipline and Impulse control*) (RMSEA = .05, CFI = .96). Both factors demonstrated acceptable internal consistency (Self-discipline α = .70; Impulse control α = .75). Employers are requested to indicate their agreement level with the seven statements. A sample item assessing *self-discipline* is: “I am good at resisting temptation”, and a sample item assessing *impulse-control* is: “Pleasure and fun sometimes keep me from getting work done”.

The 7-item BSCS (Morean et al., 2014) was measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Next, we discuss the statistical analyses which were performed on the data collected in this study.

3.8 Data analysis procedure for structural equation modelling

The objective of the data analysis is to test the proposed Employee Entitlement – Counterproductive work behaviour structural model depicted in Figure 3.1. To achieve this objective, several statistical analyses were conducted on the obtained dataset. The software packages used to perform the statistical analyse included Statistica 13, LISREL 8.8 and SmartPLS 3.2.7. Item analysis, reliability analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, partial least squares structural equation modelling, the Sobel test for mediation and the univariate test for moderation were conducted to analyse the dataset and to test the fit of the proposed structural model. The next section provides an overview of structural equation modelling and in particular, partial least squares structural equation modelling which was the primary statistical analysis conducted. Thereafter, an outline of the rest of the statistical analyses is presented.

3.8.1 Structural equation modelling

Structural equation modelling (SEM) is a collection of statistical techniques that are designed to test substantive theory from empirical data (i.e. observed variables) (Byrne, 2012), comprising multivariate techniques including confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and multiple regression (Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow, & King, 2006). The primary objective of SEM is to allow for a set of hypothesised causal relationships between one or more independent and dependent variables as specified in the structural model (Figure 3.1) to be examined, and to ascertain whether these hypotheses are supported by the observed data (Pearl, 2012). A

major advantage of SEM over traditional multivariate techniques is that it explicitly incorporates measurement error in the model (Byrne, 2012). These error terms can be estimated and culled and thereby resulting in a robust measurement of the causal relationships among the variables (Salkind & Rasmussen, 2007). Other advantages of SEM include the estimation of latent variables via indicator variables (Byrne, 2012). Furthermore, SEM is the only statistical technique that can completely and simultaneously test all of the hypothesised relationships in complex, multidimensional theoretical models (Weiner, 2003).

3.8.2 Partial least squares structural equation modelling

There are two predominant SEM approaches aimed at approximating the relationships in the structural model namely; the more widely applied covariance-based structural equation modelling (CB-SEM) and partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM), also referred to as variance-based structural equation modelling. CB-SEM attempts to minimise the discrepancy between the observed covariance matrix and the proposed theoretical covariance matrix (Chin & Newsted, 1999) and is an appropriate approach when the goal of the research is primarily theory testing or development. The PLS SEM approach focuses on maximising the explained variance (the R^2 value) in the endogenous latent variables which are achieved through an iterative sequence of ordinary least squares (OLS) regressions. In essence, PLS-SEM is an extension of multiple regression (Hair et al., 2017). Consequently, PLS-SEM focuses more on predicting the endogenous latent variables than on covariances between the indicator variables (Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009). Another distinct difference between CB-SEM and PLS-SEM is that CB-SEM is primarily used for confirmatory purposes (confirming or rejecting a priori theories), while PLS-SEM is mainly applied in prediction and theory development (Hair et al., 2017). Due to the exploratory nature of this study and the goal to predict entitled employees' level of engagement in counterproductive work behaviours when a psychological contract breach is perceived, the PLS-SEM was selected as the appropriate method of evaluating the relationships between the latent constructs in the structural model. There are several advantages of using PLS SEM which will be covered briefly.

PLS analysis has less stringent data requirements in comparison to CB-SEM and is regarded as a softer modelling approach (Monecke & Leisch, 2012). Firstly, there are no distributional assumptions which mean path coefficients can be estimated without concern whether the data is normally distributed or not. Data may be non-normal, skewed or kurtotic. Secondly, PLS-SEM is very robust with regards to the scale of measurement in that as long as the data is numerical it can be nominal, interval, ordinal, ratio or dummy variables can be used. Thirdly, PLS-SEM provides reliable path coefficients when the structural model is complex with many

latent and indicator variables and the sample size is relatively small (Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Mena, 2012).

PLS models comprise two major components namely the inner model (referred to as the measurement model in CB-SEM) and an outer model (referred as to as the structural model in CB-SEM) (Garson, 2016). The inner model refers to the paths[22] or relationships between the latent variables and the outer model describes the relationships between the indicator variables and their underlying latent variables (Hair et al., 2017). Similar to CB-SEM, the hypothesised paths between the latent variables in the inner model and between the indicators and their respective latent variables in the outer model are regarded as regression equations and are based on ordinary least squares regression. PLS-SEM distinguishes between two types of outer (measurement) models, namely reflective and formative measurement models. In the case of the formative measurement model, the indicator variables predict or cause the latent variable (Hair et al., 2012). In other words, the latent variable is a result of indicator variables. Whereas, in a reflective measurement model the latent variable predicts the variance in indicator variables, as is the case in this study.

PLS-SEM is referred to as a two-step process (Chin, 1998). Firstly, the evaluation of the outer model must be conducted. Once, reliable and valid outer model estimations are concluded, the researcher may proceed to assess the inner model. The assessment of the inner (structural) model fit is the main purpose of conducting PLS-SEM. The objective is to estimate the magnitude and significance of the path coefficients thereby confirming or refuting the hypotheses. The estimation of the parameters is guided by the underlying goal of PLS-SEM which is to maximise the explained variance of the endogenous latent variables. In other words, how does the theory fit the data?

3.8.3 Moderating and mediating effects in the model

Counterproductive work behaviour is complexly determined which means that richly interconnected latent variables determine the extent to which employees will engage in counterproductive work behaviour. Furthermore, the complex nomological net underpinning counterproductive work behaviour does not only contain main direct effects between latent variables but also moderating (also referred to as interaction effects) and mediating effects. Both additional effects offer a more concise explanation of the causal effects between latent variables by providing not only how one latent variable affects another, but also the circumstances under which the effect occurs.

[22] These paths are regarded as regression equations, where for example CWB is regressed onto PCB and RC, simultaneously.

The proposed structural model comprises two hypothesised moderating variables. Firstly, the moderating effect of *employee entitlement (EE)* on the causal relationship between *psychological contract breach (PCB) and counterproductive work behaviour (CWB).* The second moderating effect refers to *self-control (SC)* as a moderator on the causal relationship between *revenge cognitions (RC)* and *counterproductive work behaviour (CWB).* Both moderating effects were modelled as additional separate latent variables in the model, which are referred to as interaction terms. The interaction terms were calculated via the two-stage approach which uses the latent variable scores of the latent predictor and latent moderator variable from the main effects model (without the interaction term). These latent variable scores are saved and used to calculate the product indicator for the second stage analysis that involves the interaction term in addition to the predictor and moderator variable (M. Kidd, personal communication, October 15, 2018). The moderating effects were evaluated by conducting PLS SEM and the univariate test for moderation (M. Kidd, personal communication, October 4, 2018). To conduct the univariate test for moderation, the dependent variable is firstly regressed on the independent and moderator variables as predictors. From this regression, the R-square(R^2)[23] is calculated. Thereafter, the interaction term (independent*moderator) is added to the regression and the second R^2 is calculated. The F-to-remove value tests whether there is a significant increase in the R^2 with the addition of the interaction term. If this test is significant then one can conclude that there is a moderating effect.

In addition, the structural model comprises two hypothesised mediating variables. It is hypothesised that *psychological contract violation (PCV)* mediates the relationship between *psychological contract breach (PCB)* and *revenge cognitions (RC), and revenge cognitions (RC) mediates the relationship between employee entitlement (EE) and counterproductive work behaviours (CWB).* The Sobel's test (Sobel, 1982) and PLS SEM (bootstrapping) were used to evaluate the mediating effect in the model. When conducting the Sobel test, the relationship between the independent and dependent variable is posited to be an indirect effect that exists as a result of a third variable, namely the mediating variable. When the mediator is included in the regression, the effect of the independent variable is reduced, and the effect of the mediator remains significant. Essentially, the Sobel test allows for the reduction in the effect of the independent variable, after the inclusion of the mediator in the regression, to be assessed and to ascertain whether the reduction is, in fact, significant and consequently whether the mediating effect is statistically significant (Helm, Eggert, & Garnefeld, 2010). At this point, it should be noted that the bootstrapping procedure, which is

[23] The R^2 value provides an indication of the amount of variance in the dependent variable which is explained by the predictor variables in the model.

considered to be more rigorous in comparison to the Sobel test, was used for interpretation of the results. This is due to the fact that the bootstrapping procedure incorporates all the other variables and relationships in the model, whereas the Sobel test only assesses the three variables (independent, mediator and dependent variables) in isolation.

However, before assessing the inner and outer models which incorporate the aforementioned moderating and mediating effects, reliability analysis and confirmatory factor analysis were conducted to ensure that robust and psychometrically sound measuring instruments were used to operationalise the latent constructs of interest.

3.8.4 Reliability analysis

As mentioned previously, since the latent variables are not directly observable and cannot be measured directly, the responses to the survey items which serve as the indicator variables were used to measure each respondent's standing on the latent variable. Stated differently, measuring instruments contain items which can be regarded as the stimuli which are used to elicit the respondents' standing on the latent variable. As such, the responses to the items can be seen as a manifestation of the latent variable (Ziegler & Hagemann, 2015). All the items that form part of the selected measuring instruments must be subjected to stringent item analysis to ensure that all the items are psychometrically sound and defendable. Psychometrically sound items (also referred to as "good" items) accurately reflect the respondents' standing on the intended latent variable by acting in unison with the other items comprising the scale. Conversely, psychometrically questionable or "poor" items do not act in unison with the other items comprising the scale and therefore do not accurately reflect the respondents' standing on the intended latent variable. Poor items do not discriminate between respondents' different standing on the latent variable (i.e., all respondents respond in the same manner to the item) or the response to the item is not determined by the latent variable of interest but is rather determined by a non-relevant construct/s. In other words, poor items do not successfully measure the latent variable of interest.

Consequently, the initial step after collecting the data was to screen all the items to confirm that the measuring instruments used are psychometrically sound and would produce stable and consistent results. As part of the initial screening, reliability and item analysis was conducted on all the subscales of the measuring instruments using Statistica 13. The Cronbach alpha, which is commonly used to measure scale reliability, provided an indication of the internal consistency between the items of a scale. In other words, the extent to which the respondents rated the items of a scale in a similar manner (Bhattacherjee, 2012). Cronbach's alpha values were evaluated to determine the reliability of the items. Reliability scores of ≥ .70 were considered satisfactorily high (Nunnally, 1978). In addition, the item-total

correlations, which is a subtype of internal consistency reliability, were assessed to establish whether each item of a particular scale correlates with the overall or composite score of that scale (Field, 2015). Inter-item correlations between .50 and 1.00 are regarded as excellent and values ranging between .30 and .50 are considered to indicate acceptable reliability (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The purpose of the reliability analysis is to identify less desirable or problematic items which reduce the reliability of the scale and to ascertain whether the removal of the item is warranted. Satisfactory items will have a high internal consistency whereas less desirable items will display lower internal consistency and generally deviate from the rest of the items in the scale or subscale. Next, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to assess the psychometric integrity of the measuring instruments used to operationalise the latent variables.

3.8.5 Confirmatory factor analysis

There are two predominant types of factor analysis namely exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Due to the fact that PLS-SEM does not provide the overall goodness of fit statistics to corroborate whether the data supports the latent structure of the measuring instruments, CFA was conducted in LISREL 8.8 prior to conducting the PLS-SEM analyses in SmartPLS 3.2.7.

CFA is a subset of structural equation modelling and is an appropriate method when the researcher's understanding of the underlying latent variable structure is based on knowledge acquired from theory and/or empirical research (Byrne, 2016). Guided by acquired knowledge, the researcher hypothesises certain relationships between the indicators and the latent variables and between the indicator variables. In other words, CFA is hypothesis-driven which enables the researcher to verify or confirm a priori factor structure underlying the relationship among a set of indicator variables (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991). When conducting CFA, the researcher explicitly specifies the number of factors underlying a latent variable and the relationship between the indicator variables and the factors. Consequently, the researcher tests and substantiates whether the proposed relationships do in fact exist between the indicators and its underlying latent variable. Hence, CFA is used as a tool to validate the measurement model prior to specifying and estimating the structural model (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). Another reason for employing CFA in this study was to ensure that the composite scores of the scales and subscales which served as the indicator variables when evaluating the structural (inner) model fit demonstrated psychometric integrity (M. Kidd, personal communication, October 4, 2018).

In establishing the robustness of the measuring instruments, CFA was used to assess the construct validity[24] of the instruments. The construct validity is determined by evaluating several goodness-of-fit statistics namely the RMSEA, Goodness-of-fit index (GFI) and the adjusted GFI. Considerations for a good fitting model includes a RMSEA value less than .08, and both the GFI and adjusted GFI should be greater than .90 (Byrne, 2001; M. Kidd, personal communication, October 4, 2018). Convergent validity[25], which is a subset of construct validity was assessed by evaluating the factor loadings, average variance extracted and the construct reliability.

The factor loading is interpreted as a regression coefficient and represents the strength of the regression path between the latent variable and its indicators and can be interpreted as the percentage of variance in the indicator variable is explained its respective latent variable. The standardised factor loadings should be .50 or higher and statistically significant. The factor loadings are considered significant[26] ($p<.05$) when the t-value is greater than 1.96 (Hair et al., 2017). Next, the unidimensionality of the latent variables is examined.

The average variance extracted (AVE) reflects the average proportion of variance in the indicator variables that is accounted for by the latent variable that the indicator variables are tasked to represent (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). All the latent constructs should be unidimensional. A latent variable is considered to be unidimensional when the systematic differences within the variance of the item are only as a result of the latent variable in question (Ziegler & Hagemann, 2015). Items are generally derivatives of the definition of the latent variable intended to be measured and as such are intended to only capture the latent variable from which it is derived (Ziegler & Hagemann, 2015). AVE is a tool to measure the unidimensionality of the latent variables. An AVE value of .50 or higher indicates that the indicator variables and the latent variable share an adequate degree of variance in common because at least 50% of the variance in the indicator variables is explained by the latent variable it purports to measure (Farrell, 2010).

In addition to the internal consistency reliability (Cronbach alpha) which was examined as part of the initial reliability analysis, the construct reliability (CR) was also assessed to test for reliability of the indicator variables. An indication of acceptable reliability would ideally be .70 and above (Fornell & Bookstein, 1982). In the event that CFA does not provide an acceptable measurement model fit, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) will be conducted to determine the underlying factor structure.

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[24] Construct validity refers to the extent to which the items reflect the latent variables.
[25] Convergent validity refers to the extent to which the items or indicator variables share a high proportion of variance in common.
[26] Significant factor loadings are interpreted as successfully reflecting the latent variables they were intended to measure.

3.8.6 Validating the PLS outer (measurement) model

In validating the outer model, firstly the composite reliability (CR) was examined to evaluate the internal consistency and the individual indicator reliability. As is the case with the Cronbach's alphas, the CR does not assume that all indicator variables are equally reliable but instead measures reliability by taking each indicator's outer loading into account, resulting in a composite with greater reliability (Hair et al., 2017). The composite reliability can be interpreted in the same way as Cronbach's alpha and value range between 0 and 1, where higher values indicate higher levels of reliability. CR values greater than .70 were regarded as satisfactory.

Next convergent and discriminant validity was conducted as part of the validity analysis. The convergent validity was assessed by examining the average variance extracted (AVE) and the estimated standardised outer loadings of the indicator variables. The outer loadings reflect the relationship between the indicator variable and the latent construct and are comparable to the factor loadings reported in the CFA. Similarly, the outer loadings must be statistically significant and be .70 or higher (Hair et al., 2017). The square of a standardised outer loading of an indicator signifies how much of the variation in an indicator variable is explained by the latent construct and is referred to as the variance extracted from the item. Indicator variables with loadings between .40 and .70 should only be considered for removal when their deletion will result in a significant increase in the composite reliability (Hair et al., 2012).

As mentioned earlier, AVE is a measure of unidimensionality[27] and is a ratio between 0 and 1. The ideal should be as close to 1 as possible, and at a minimum greater than .50. Thereafter, the heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlations (Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2014) was used to examine discriminant validity[28], The HTMT is the average of the correlations of indicator variables across latent variables measuring different constructs relative to the average of correlations of indicator variables measuring the same construct (Henseler et al., 2014). To establish discriminant validity, the upper confidence interval limit of the HTMT statistics should not include the value 1 for all combinations of the latent constructs (M. Kidd, personal communication, October 4, 2018).

3.8.7 Validating the PLS inner (structural) model

Once the reliability and validity of the measuring instruments are confirmed, the inner model can be fitted and validated. The primary objective of fitting the inner model is to determine the model's ability to predict the endogenous variables. However, before assessing the inner

[27] Unidimensionality refers to the extent to which the scale measures one underlying latent variable or construct (DeVellis, 2017).
[28] Discriminant validity refers to the extent to which the latent construct is genuinely unique and distinct from other constructs in the model (Hair et al., 2017).

model, the model must be examined for multicollinearity among the exogenous (predictor) variables(Hair et al., 2017).

3.8.8 Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity refers to high intercorrelations among the exogenous (predictor) latent variable which causes biased path coefficients and thereby threatens the stability of the path coefficients. To adequately diagnose the existence of multicollinearity in the model the variance inflation factors (VIF) of each predictor variable was examined. The VIF denotes the degree to which the variance of the estimated regression path coefficient is overstated by the existence of high intercorrelations among the predictor variables in the model. The VIF guidelines prescribe that VIF values above 5 (Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011), indicate critical levels of collinearity between the predictor and response (endogenous) variables. In the event that critical levels of collinearity are detected, the removal of the construct should be considered, and the predictors merged into a single construct instead (Hair et al., 2017). After confirming the absence of multicollinearity issues, the researcher proceeded to assess the inner (structural) model.

3.8.9 Evaluation of the path coefficients in the inner (structural) model

The key criteria for assessing the inner model are the evaluation of the path coefficients in terms of sign, magnitude and significance. The magnitude of the path coefficients is determined by evaluating the coefficient of determination (R^2 value) of the endogenous variables. The R^2 value provides an indication of the amount of variance in the endogenous latent variables which is explained by the exogenous latent variables in the model. The R^2 values range between 0 and 1 where higher values indicate higher levels of predicting accuracy. According to Chin (1998), the value of .67, .33 and .19 are regarded as substantial, moderate and weak respectively. The significance of the coefficient depends on its standard error which was obtained through the bootstrapping procedure to enable the empirical t-values and p-values for all path coefficients to be computed. As a guide, the p-value ($p<.05$) will be used to assess the significance levels of the path coefficients in this study.

3.9 Chapter summary

In summary, Chapter 3 provided an in-depth framework of the research design and methodological choices that were applied throughout the research process. More specifically, the sampling and data collection procedure, the ethical deliberations that were considered, the measuring instruments that were used to operationalise the latent variables in the proposed structural model and lastly, the various statistical analyses that were conducted to answer the research initiating question. The next chapter presents and discusses the results of the analyses that were conducted for this research study.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH RESULTS

4. 1 Introduction

The objective of this chapter is to present and discuss the statistical results of the analyses that were conducted for this research study. The primary objective of this study is to explore employee entitlement and its influence on CWB when a breach of the psychological contract is perceived. A theoretical argument derived from the literature review (Chapter 2) culminated in a proposed structural model presented in Figure 3.1. The structural model encompasses 12 unique, substantial research hypotheses.

The central goal of this study is to answer the research initiating question by evaluating the fit of the measurement (outer) and structural (inner) models and to test the hypothesised relationships in the models. The chapter starts with an overview of the descriptive statistics of the sample followed by a discussion on the missing values in the data. Thereafter, the findings from the item analyses and reliability analyses which were performed to evaluate the psychometric soundness of the measurement instruments that were used, are presented. In the next section, we present the findings of the confirmatory factory analysis (CFA) which was applied to determine the fit of the measurement model. The final section of this chapter addresses the results obtained from the PLS path analysis which was conducted to evaluate the outer(measurement) and inner(structural) models.

4. 2 Sample

The composite questionnaires were distributed to a South African higher education institution in the Western Cape with a total staff complement of 3 429. Following the distribution of the online questionnaire, 308 usable questionnaires were returned (a response rate of 9%). The descriptive statistics reflected that most of the sample fell within the 24-38 years category. According to Table 4.1 the largest proportion of the participants was white (63%), female (71%), with masters or PhD level of education (46%) and had worked for one to three years for the company (20%).

Table 4.1

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Item	Category	Percentage	Item	Category	Percentage
Age	>24	1	Educational level	Masters or PhD	46
	24-38	44		Honours	15
	39-53	38		Degree	14
	54-72	17		Diploma	12
				Certificate	6
Gender	Male	29		Grade 12	7
	Female	71	Length of employment	< 1 year	10
Race	White	63		1-3 years	20
	Coloured	30		3-6 years	19
	Black	5		6-10 years	17
	Indian	2		More than 10 years	34

4.3 Missing values

Prior to performing any statistical analysis, the issue of missing values must be addressed to ensure sound statistical inferences. The survey used in this study had a built-in prompt which limited the possibility of missing values. When participants skipped or neglected to answer all the questions on a page, the participants were prompted to review the answers and complete the outstanding questions indicated with an asterisk. As such, an analysis of the data revealed no missing values in the dataset.

4.4 Reliability analysis

As mentioned in section 3.8.4, reliability analysis provides an indication of the integrity of the psychometric instruments used to operationalise the latent variables in the structural model Figure 3.1. Reliability and item analysis were performed in Statistica 13 on all the subscales of the measuring instruments that were used in this study, namely the WDS (Bennett & Robinson, 2000) used to assess counterproductive work behaviour, MEE (Westerlaken et al., 2016) to assess employee entitlement, Robinson and Morrison's (2000) global measure of psychological contract which was used to operationalise psychological contract breach and psychological contract violation, the revenge subscale of the Wade Forgiveness scale (WFS; Wade, 1989) to assess revenge cognitions and the BSCS (Morean et al., 2014) which was used to measure self-control. All Cronbach alphas were calculated with a 95% confidence interval using the bootstrapping procedure.

Table 4.2

Reliability Scores for the Measurement Model

Latent Variables	Subscales	No of items	Mean (*SD*)	Cronbach's Alpha (α)
Counterproductive work behaviour	Interpersonal deviance	7	9.24(2.65)	.73
	Organisational deviance	12	15.75(3.77)	.76
Employee entitlement	Reward as right	9	24.88(6.25)	.78
	Self-focus	5	11.65(3.48)	.69
	Excessive self-regard	4	12.51(3.34)	.77
Psychological contract breach	Psychological contract breach	5	11.82(5.01)	.91
Psychological contract violation	Psychological contract violation	4	8.61(4.82)	.95
Revenge cognitions	Revenge cognitions	5	7.63(4.14)	.91
Self-control	Impulse control	4	8.11(3.28)	.72
	Self-discipline	3	11.53(2.42)	.69

Notes: n = 308

Item analysis was performed on all the subscales of the selected measures. Table 4.2 presents an overview of the results and a detailed account of the item statistics are shown in Appendix C. With the exception of the *self-discipline* subscale of the self-control measure (α = .69) and *self-focus* subscale of the employee entitlement measure (α = .69), all the subscales met the criteria for good internal consistency (α = .70). As employee entitlement is a relatively new construct, this study can be regarded as exploratory and therefore α = .69 was acceptable (Hair et al., 2017). Similarly, the corrected item-total correlations for most of the items were above .30. Only items *CWB_O10, CWB_O19,* and *CWB_O19* of the organisational deviance subscale demonstrated item-total correlations below .30. Although these three items did not meet the minimum requirement, closer inspection revealed that the removal of these items would not significantly increase the current Cronbach's alpha. Consequently, the retention of these items warranted.

The aim of the preceding item analyses was to determine the psychometric integrity and soundness of the indicator variables (items) used to measure the latent variables of interest in the model. All the items indicated acceptable internal consistency which was corroborated by acceptable average inter-item correlations. Together these results supported the retention of all the original items that formed part of the composite survey.

4.5 Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

Next, CFA was conducted in LISREL 8.8 to validate the measurement model by assessing the psychometric properties, namely construct validity of the measuring instruments. Considering the large number of model parameters and the limited sample size, four separate measurement models were fitted, as opposed to testing all the model parameters in one single

measurement model. The four separate measurement models are the counterproductive work behaviour measurement model, the self-control measurement model, the employee entitlement measurement model, and the psychological contract breach, psychological contract violation and revenge cognitions measurement model. These measurement models were evaluated according to the acceptable fit criteria. The construct validity was determined by evaluating several goodness-of-fit statistics namely the RMSEA, Goodness-of-fit index (GFI) and the adjusted GFI. Convergent validity was assessed by evaluating the factor loadings, average variance extracted and the construct reliability. The results of the evaluation of each measurement model are reported below.

4.5.1 Counterproductive work behaviour measurement model

Based on previous theory, a two-factor model of the Workplace Deviance Scale (WDS) was specified in which *interpersonal deviance* and *organisational deviance* loaded onto Counterproductive work behaviour. The goodness of fit statistics as provided in Table 4.3 reported a RMSEA value of .03 which indicated a good model fit. Furthermore, both the GFI and AGFI values were above the recommended cut-off value, at .97. Table 4.4 illustrates the factor loadings (lambdas) obtained for the indicator variables of each subscale. Apart from item 10 on the *organisational deviance* subscale, all the items for both subscales are deemed statistically significant at .05, as the t-values exceeds the 1.96 critical value. Similarly, barring item 10, all the factor loading estimates showed that the indicator variables were strongly related to their purported sub-factor, with estimates greater than .50. As is evident from Table 4.5, the average variance extracted (AVE) for the *interpersonal deviance* and *organisational deviance* subscales are .52 and .43 respectively. The AVE for organisational deviance subscale can be seen as a slight limitation as it is just below the guideline of >.50. This may be due to respondents' lack of understanding of the item or inadequate attention given to the item when responding. However, the construct reliability for both subscales is above the recommended .70. Consequently, overall, the goodness-of-fit indices, factor loading estimates, the AVE and construct reliability suggest that the two-factor model fits the data reasonably well.

Table 4.3

The Goodness of Fit Statistics of the Measurement Models

Measurement model	RMSEA	GFI	AGFI
Counterproductive work behaviour	.03	.97	.97
Self-control	.06	.99	.99
Employee entitlement	.10	.90	.94
Psychological contract breach, psychological contract violation and revenge cognitions	.06	1.00	.99

Table 4.4

Factor Loadings of the Counterproductive Work Behaviour Measurement Model

Latent Variables	Item	Factor loading	SE	T-statistic
CWB_I	CWB_I1	.55	.06	9.79
CWB_I	CWB_I2	.75	.05	13.63
CWB_I	CWB_I3	.79	.05	16.94
CWB_I	CWB_I4	.80	.06	12.70
CWB_I	CWB_I5	.67	.12	5.80
CWB_I	CWB_I6	.71	.05	14.01
CWB_I	CWB_I7	.77	.07	10.69
CWB_O	CWB_O8	.67	.07	9.79
CWB_O	CWB_O9	.63	.07	9.31
CWB_O	CWB_O10	.33	.22	1.49
CWB_O	CWB_O11	.77	.04	17.12
CWB_O	CWB_O12	.62	.06	9.72
CWB_O	CWB_O13	.77	.08	9.45
CWB_O	CWB_O14	.63	.07	9.15
CWB_O	CWB_O15	.69	.06	11.74
CWB_O	CWB_O16	.55	.11	5.10
CWB_O	CWB_O17	.69	.11	6.37
CWB_O	CWB_O18	.71	.06	11.31
CWB_O	CWB_O19	.72	.21	3.47

Notes: CWB = Counterproductive work behaviour; CWB_I = Interpersonal deviance subscale; CWB_O = Organisational deviance subscale

Table 4.5

AVE and Construct Reliability Scores of the Measurement Models

Measurement model	Indicators	AVE	Construct reliability
Counterproductive work behaviour	CWB_I	.52	.88
	CWB_O	.43	.90
Self-control	SC_I	.51	.81
	SC_SD	.52	.76
Psychological contract breach, psychological contract violation and revenge cognitions	PCB	.79	.95
	PCV	.89	.97
	RC	.84	.96

Notes: AVE = Average variance extracted; CWB = Counterproductive work behaviour; CWB_I = Interpersonal deviance subscale; CWB_O = Organisational deviance subscale; PCB = Psychological contract breach; PCV = Psychological contract violation; RC = Revenge Cognitions; SC = Self-control; SC_I = Impulse control; SC_SD = Self-discipline

4.5.2 Self-control measurement model

A two-factor model of the Brief Self-control Scale was specified in which the *impulse control* and *self-discipline* subscales loaded onto the Self-control latent variable. As shown in Table 4.3, the goodness of fit statistics reported acceptable model fit with a RMSEA value of .06 and both the GFI and AGFI were .99. Furthermore, the factor loadings (lambdas) obtained for each item (as seen in Table 4.6) are deemed statistically significant at .05, with estimates greater than .50. Together, these results indicate that all items are strongly related to the purported subscale. In addition, the AVE for the *impulse control* and *self-discipline* subscales are .51 and .52 respectively (as seen in Table 4.5), indicating that self-control latent variable explains more than 50% of the variance in both subscales. Similarly, the construct reliability for both subscales is above the recommended criteria of greater than .70. Overall the goodness-of-fit indices, factor loading estimates, the AVE and construct reliability suggest that the two-factor model fits the data reasonably well.

Table 4.6
Factor Loadings for the Self-Control Measurement Model

Latent Variables	Item	Factor loading	SE	T-statistic
SC_I	SC_I1	.70	.05	14.50
SC_I	SC_I2	.72	.05	15.27
SC_I	SC_I3	.81	.04	18.10
SC_I	SC_I4	.64	.06	10.79
SC_SD	SC_SD5	.73	.06	12.94
SC_SD	SC_SD6	.79	.05	15.13

Notes: SE= Standard error; SC = Self-control; SC_I = Impulse control; SC_SD = Self-discipline

4.5.3 Employee entitlement measurement model

A three-factor model of the measure of Employee Entitlement was specified in which excessive *self-regard*, *reward as right* and *self-focus* were loaded onto Employee Entitlement. The goodness of fit statistics as provided in Table 4.3 reported a RMSEA value of .10 indicating poor fit, which may be a reason for concern. Despite the higher RMSEA value, both the GFI and AGFI values were above the cut-off value of > .90. Table 4.7 presents the factor loadings (lambdas) obtained for the indicator variables of each subscale. All the factor loadings are deemed statistically significant at .05 and most of the estimates were above the recommended .50 guideline. Factor loading estimates less than .50 related to items EE_R1(.4), EE_R4(.47) and EE_SF12(.47). Due to the fact that the CFA returned inadequate model fit an EFA was conducted to gain clarity on the underlying factor structures. However,

the EFA also did not provide useful information. This outcome is contrary to that of Westerlaken et al. (2016) who also validated the instrument using structural equation modelling. This can be regarded as a limitation of this study. However, it should be noted that Cronbach alphas and the composite reliability in the PLS-SEM were acceptable.

Table 4.7

Factor Loadings for the Employee entitlement Measurement Model

Latent Variables	Item	Factor loading	SE	T-statistic
EE_ESR	EE_ESR15	.59	.06	9.28
EE_ESR	EE_ESR16	.75	.06	13.47
EE_ESR	EE_ESR17	.76	.05	16.04
EE_ESR	EE_ESR18	.80	.05	16.86
EE_R	EE_R1	.40	.07	5.80
EE_R	EE_R2	.56	.06	9.20
EE_R	EE_R3	.55	.06	9.54
EE_R	EE_R4	.47	.06	7.87
EE_R	EE_R5	.64	.05	12.23
EE_R	EE_R6	.74	.04	17.49
EE_R	EE_R7	.64	.05	12.36
EE_R	EE_R8	.53	.06	9.19
EE_R	EE_R9	.67	.06	11.90
EE_SF	EE_SF10	.66	.06	11.29
EE_SF	EE_SF11	.65	.05	12.69
EE_SF	EE_SF12	.47	.07	6.42
EE_SF	EE_SF13	.61	.07	9.35
EE_SF	EE_SF14	.74	.06	11.50

Notes: SE = Standard error; EE = Employee entitlement; EE_ESR = Excessive self-regard subscale; EE_R = Reward as right subscale; EE_SF = Self focus subscale

4.5.4 Psychological contract breach, psychological contract violation and revenge cognitions measurement model

The following unidimensional latent variables namely psychological contract breach, psychological contract violation and revenge cognitions were pooled together in a single measurement model. The goodness of fit statistics as provided in Table 4.3 reported a RMSEA value of .06 and, both the GFI and AGFI values were above the cut-off value of > .90, at 1 and .99 respectively. Taken together, these results suggest an acceptable model fit. Appendix D presents the factor loadings (lambdas) obtained for the indicator variables of each latent variable. All the items for the three scales are deemed statistically significant at .05, as the t-values exceed the 1.96 critical value. Additionally, the factor loading estimates showed that all

the indicator variables were strongly related to their purported latent construct, with estimates greater than .5 (.78 – .98). Furthermore, as shown in Table 4.5, the AVE for all three scales was above the guideline of >.50 and the construct reliability of all three scales was satisfactory (>.70). Consequently, overall, the goodness-of-fit indices, factor loading estimates, the AVE and construct reliability suggest that the three-factor model fits the data reasonably well.

As mentioned earlier, when conducting PLS analyses a two-step process is followed where firstly the outer (measurement) model is assessed and once reliability and validity are confirmed, the researcher then proceeded to assess the inner (structural) model. To ascertain whether the measuring instruments adequately represent the proposed latent variables in the structural model, the outer model's reliability and validity were evaluated. The validation of the outer model follows next.

4.6 Validating the PLS outer (measurement) model

The aim of the validation of the outer model is to determine the psychometric quality of measuring instruments used to operationalise the latent variables in the model. In essence, the assessment of the outer model provides an indication of how well the items (indicators) load onto their respective construct. The assessment of the outer model entails examining the measurement model metrics namely reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. The composite reliability (CR) serves as a gauge of internal consistency reliability of the indicator variables. While the average variance extracted (AVE) and the standardised outer loadings signified convergent validity, the heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlations indicates discriminant validity.

Table 4.8

AVE and Construct Reliability Scores of the Measurement Models (MM)

Latent variable	Indicators (α)	Composite reliability	AVE
Counterproductive work behaviour	CWB_I (.73) CWB_O (.76)	0.87	0.78
Self-control	SC_I (.72) SC_SD (.69)	0.81	0.68
Psychological contract breach	PCB (.91)	0.94	0.75
Psychological contract violation	PCV (.95)	0.96	0.87
Revenge cognitions	RC (.91)	0.94	0.76
Employee entitlement	EE_R (.78) EE_SF (.69) EE_ESR (.77)	0.81	0.6

Notes: CWB = Counterproductive work behaviour; CWB_I = Interpersonal deviance subscale; CWB_O = Organisational deviance subscale; PCB = Psychological contract breach; EE = Employee entitlement; EE_ESR = Excessive self-regard subscale; EE_R = Reward as right subscale; EE_SF = Self focus subscale; PCV = Psychological contract violation; RC = Revenge Cognitions; SC = Self-control; SC_I = Impulse control; SC_SD = Self-discipline

As is evident in Table 4.8, the composite reliability of each variable was satisfactory in meeting the criteria associated with acceptable CR values (> .70). Self-control and Employee Entitlement had the lowest composite reliability, of .81 and Psychological contract violation demonstrating the highest composite reliability, of .96. Furthermore, all the latent variables in the proposed outer model displayed adequate AVE values, which were well above the minimum accepted value of .50. Similarly, all the standardised outer loadings as presented in Table 4.9 were statistically significant at .01 level and exhibited outer loading values above the minimum accepted value of .50 (M. Kidd, personal communication, October 4, 2018). In other words, each latent variable in the model explained at least 50% of the variance in the participants' responses to their respective indicators.

Table 4.9

Outer Loadings

Latent variable	Paths	Indicator	Loading	95% lower	95% upper
CWB	CWB_I <- CWB	CWB_I	.84	.76	.89
CWB	CWB_O <- CWB	CWB_O	.92	.89	.94
PCB*EE	PCB * EE <- PCB*EE	PCB * EE	1.12	1	1.22
PCB	PCB1_r <- PCB	PCB1_r	.91	.88	93
PCB	PCB2_r <- PCB	PCB2_r	.91	.89	.93
PCB	PCB3_r <- PCB	PCB3_r	.91	.89	.93
PCB	PCB4 <- PCB	PCB4	.79	.71	.86
PCB	PCB5 <- PCB	PCB5	.81	.75	.86
PCV	PCV1 <- PCV	PCV1	.92	.89	.94
PCV	PCV2 <- PCV	PCV2	.96	.95	.97
PCV	PCV3 <- PCV	PCV3	.93	.90	.95
PCV	PCV4 <- PCV	PCV4	.92	.90	.94
EE	EE_ESR <- EE	EE_ESR	.59	.29	.76
EE	EE_R <- EE	EE_R	.80	.62	.88
EE	EE_SF <- EE	EE_SF	.90	.79	.97
RC*SC	RC * SC <- RC*SC	RC * SC	1.23	.95	1.49
RC	RC1 <- RC	RC1	.91	.88	.95
RC	RC2 <- RC	RC2	.90	.85	.94
RC	RC3 <- RC	RC3	.74	.65	.81
RC	RC4 <- RC	RC4	.90	.87	.94
RC	RC5 <- RC	RC5	.89	.83	.94
SC	SC_I(reversed) <- SC	SC_I(reversed)	.87	.82	.91
SC	SC_SD <- SC	SC_SD	.78	.66	.85

Notes: CWB = Counterproductive work behaviour; CWB_I = Interpersonal deviance subscale; CWB_O = Organisational deviance subscale; PCB = Psychological contract breach; EE = Employee entitlement; EE_ESR = Excessive self-regard subscale; EE_R = Reward as right subscale; EE_SF = Self focus subscale; r = reversed score; PCV = Psychological contract violation; RC = Revenge Cognitions; SC = Self-control; SC_I = Impulse control; SC_SD = Self-discipline

To establish discriminant validity, the upper confidence interval limit of the HTMT statistics should not include the value one for all combinations of the latent constructs (Hair et al., 2017). A closer inspection of Table 4.10, which captures the HTMT values, indicated that discriminant validity was established for all the latent variables as all the upper confidence interval limits of all the combinations of the latent constructs do not include the value one. Once satisfactory reliability and validity of the outer-model (measurement model) were established, the researcher proceeded to evaluate and interpret the path coefficients and the proposed hypotheses in the inner (structural) model.

Table 4.10

The Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT)Ratio of Correlations

Paths	Ratio	95% lower	95% upper	Discriminant Validity
PCB -> CWB	.15	.05	.29	yes
PCB*EE -> CWB	.04	.01	.15	yes
PCB*EE -> PCB	.03	.03	.19	yes
PCV -> CWB	.2	.08	.35	yes
PCV -> PCB	.69	.61	.77	yes
PCV -> PCB*EE	.03	.01	.17	yes
EE -> CWB	.24	.15	.38	yes
EE -> PCB	.22	.11	.38	yes
EE -> PCB*EE	.06	.03	.30	yes
EE -> PCV	.15	.08	.31	yes
RC -> CWB	.34	.17	.49	yes
RC -> PCB	.34	.22	.45	yes
RC -> PCB*EE	.12	.03	.28	yes
RC -> PCV	.38	.27	.50	yes
RC -> EE	.22	.11	34	yes
RC*SC -> CWB	.29	.05	.50	yes
RC*SC -> PCB	.05	.04	.15	yes
RC*SC -> PCB*EE	.07	0	.19	yes
RC*SC -> PCV	.02	.01	.17	yes
RC*SC -> EE	.06	.02	.16	yes
RC*SC -> RC	.29	.07	.45	yes
SC -> CWB	.77	.60	.92	yes
SC -> PCB	.14	.07	.32	yes
SC -> PCB*EE	.22	.08	.37	yes
SC -> PCV	.16	.06	.32	yes
SC -> EE	.35	.26	.55	yes
SC -> RC	.32	.13	.48	yes
SC -> RC*SC	.29	.06	.49	yes

Notes: CWB = Counterproductive work behaviour; PCB = Psychological contract breach; EE = Employee entitlement; PCV = Psychological contract violation; RC = Revenge Cognitions; SC = Self-control; CI = Confidence interval.

4.7 Validating the inner(structural) model

As mentioned earlier, the main objective of PLS is the assessment or validation of the inner (structural) model which provides an indication of the model's capability to predict one or more endogenous variables. PLS-SEM was conducted to analyse and assess the quality and significance of the relevant paths between the exogenous and endogenous latent variables in the structural model. Figure 4.1 illustrates a graphic representation of the relationships between the latent variable of interest. The blue circles represent the latent variables namely, psychological contract breach (PCB), psychological contract violation (PCV), revenge cognitions (RC), counterproductive work behaviours (CWB), employee entitlement (PE) and self-control (SC), whereas the green circles denote the moderating or interaction effects in the structural model. Two moderating interactions were hypothesised to moderate specific relationships within the model. Firstly, the moderating effect of self-control in the revenge cognitions (RC) – counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) relationships indicated by the green circle RC*SC and secondly the moderating effect of employee entitlement (PE) in the psychological contract breach (PCB) – counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) relationships indicated by the green circle PCB*PE.

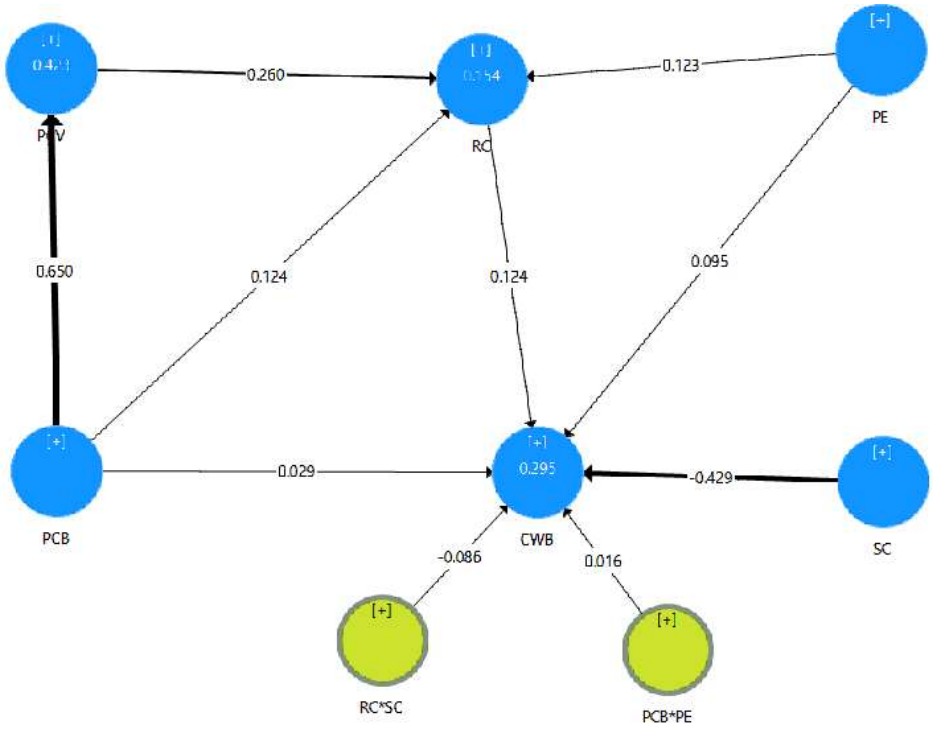

Figure 4.1. Graphic presentation of the inner (structural) model

The PLS inner (structural) model analysis necessitates the testing for multicollinearity, evaluation of R^2 values and finally the main, moderating and mediating effects in the model can be evaluated and interpreted.

4.7.1 Multicollinearity

Prior to assessing the parameters of the inner model, a test for multicollinearity was performed by evaluating the variance inflation factors associated with each predictor variable (exogenous latent variable). The VIF denotes the degree to which the variance of the estimated regression path coefficient between the predictor and response variable is overstated due to the existence of high intercorrelations among the predictor variables in the model. The VIF coefficients for the structural model are presented in Table 4.11. In a well-fitting model, the structural VIF coefficients should not exceed 5. An examination of the VIF coefficients confirmed the absence of multicollinearity among the exogenous variables in the model. In other words, it can be concluded that the exogenous variables in the model are not highly correlated with one another and therefore the variance of the estimated regression path coefficient between the predictor and response variable is not inflated due to high intercorrelations between the exogenous variables.

Table 4.11

Multicollinearity of the Latent Variables

	Counterproductive work behaviour	Revenge Cognitions
Psychological contract breach	1.137	1.756
PCB* EE	1.057	
Psychological contract violation		1.735
Employee entitlement	1.074	1.036
Revenge cognitions	1.282	
RC*SC	1.127	
Self-control	1.145	

Notes: PCB*EE = The moderating effect of employee entitlement (EE) on the causal relationship between psychological contract breach (PCB) and counterproductive work behaviour (CWB); RC*SC = The moderating effect of self-control (SC) as a moderator on the causal relationship between revenge cognitions (RC) and counterproductive work behaviour (CWB). Both moderating effects were modelled as additional separate latent variables in the model, which are referred to as interaction terms

4.7.2 Evaluation and interpretation of the R square

As a criterion of predictive accuracy of the model, the magnitude of R^2 is evaluated. The R^2 value provides an indication of the amount of variance in the endogenous latent variables which is explained by the exogenous latent variables in the model. Table 4.12 illustrates the R^2 values for the endogenous latent variables.

Table 4.12

R Square Values in the Structural Model

	R Square	R Square Adjusted
Counterproductive work behaviour (CWB)	.29	.28
Psychological contract violation (PCV)	.42	.42
Revenge cognitions (RC)	.15	.15

As shown in Table 4.12, counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) had a R^2 value of .29, which is interpreted as 29 % of the variance in CWB is explained by the exogenous variables in the model. Psychological contract violation (PCV) showed a R^2 value of 42. which means that 42% of the variance in PCV is explained by the exogenous variables in the model. Finally, revenge cognitions (RC) indicated a R^2 value of .15, signifying that 15% of the variance in RC is explained by the exogenous variables in the model. As these scores are relatively low, there may be other viable variables that may have had an impact on the endogenous variables which were not considered in the hypothesised model.

4.7.3 Evaluation and interpretation of the main effects

The main aim of PLS-SEM is to explain the hypothesised relationships between the latent variables of interest. In other words, to determine whether the model fits the data. Unlike CB-SEM, PLS-SEM does not allow for the testing of the overall goodness of model fit but instead focuses on maximising the explained variance in the endogenous variables (Hair et al., 2017). As such, the structural model is assessed for its predictive capabilities by determining how well the model predicts the endogenous variables. After the reliability of each latent variable was confirmed, the estimated path coefficients were assessed to determine the strength and significance of the various hypothesised relationships. To assess the statistical significance of the path coefficients, the bootstrapping procedure was used to compute the *p* values. A significance level of 5% ($p < .05$) was used as a guideline in this study. Table 4.13 shows whether the path coefficients of the main effects were significant or not as indicated by the p-values in the last column. In addition to evaluating the p-values, the confidence intervals were also examined to further substantiate the stability of the path coefficient estimate. A statistically significant path coefficient is concluded when the confidence interval does not include the value zero.

Table 4.13

Path Coefficients for the Structural Model

Paths/Relationships	PLS path coefficient	95% lower	95% upper	P-value from T-test
PCB -> CWB	.03	-.07	.14	.57
PCB -> PCV	.65	.57	.73	0**
PCB -> RC	.12	-.01	.24	.06
PCV -> RC	.26	.13	.39	0**
PE -> CWB	.09	-.01	.2	.07
PE -> RC	.12	.03	.22	.01
RC -> CWB	.12	.01	.25	.04
SC -> CWB	-.43	-.52	-.34	0**

Notes: ** p < .01

***Hypothesis 2*: PCB has a significant positive effect on CWB**

The hypothesised positive relationship between psychological contract breach (PCB) and counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) was found to be statistically not significant (PLS path coefficient = .03) at a .05 significance level, as zero fell within the 95% confidence interval (Table 4.13). As a result, the null hypothesis was not rejected. These results are consistent with previous research that also reported an absence of a direct causal relationship between psychological contract breach and CWB (Bordia et al., 2008). However, it should be noted that even though p <.05 is used as a guideline in this study, a less stringent significance level of 10% can also be used, where p < .10 (Hair et al., 2017). Consequently, even though the hypothesised positive relationship between psychological contract breach and counterproductive work behaviour was found to be statistically not significant at a .05 level, it was significant at a .10 level, indicating a trend for a positive significant causal relationship between *psychological contract breach* (PCB) and *counterproductive work behaviour* (CWB).

***Hypothesis 3*: PCB has a significant positive effect on PCV**

The hypothesised positive relationship between *psychological contract breach* (PCB) and *psychological contract violation* (PCV) was found to be statistically significant (PLS path coefficient = .65) at a .01, as zero did not fall within the 95% confidence interval (Table 4.13). As a result, the null hypothesis was rejected. This finding is consistent with that of previous research supporting the PCB and PCV relationship (Bordia et al., 2008; Matthijs Bal, De Lange, Jansen, Van, & Velde, 2008; Restubog et al., 2015; Suazo, 2009; Zhao et al., 2007). Therefore, it can be deduced that there is a positive causal relationship between PCB and PCV. Otherwise stated, when employees perceive that the psychological contract has been

breached, they are likely to experience strong negative emotions including frustration, anger and disappointment as a reaction to the perceived or real breach.

***Hypothesis 4*: PCV has a significant positive effect on RC**

The hypothesised positive relationship between *psychological contract violation* (PCV) and *revenge cognitions* (RC) was found to be statistically significant (PLS path coefficient = .26) at a .01 level, as zero did not fall within the 95% confidence interval (Table 4.13). As a result, the null hypothesis was rejected. This finding broadly supports the work of other studies in this area linking PCV and RC (Bordia et al., 2008). Consequently, it can be concluded that PCV has a positive causal effect on RC. Therefore, employees' feelings of frustration, anger or mistrust as a reaction to perceptions of being wronged or treated unfairly, are likely to predict revengeful thoughts and attitudes.

***Hypothesis 5:* PCB has a significant positive effect on RC**

The hypothesised positive relationship between *psychological contract breach* (PCB) and *revenge cognitions* (RC) was found to be statistically not significant (PLS path coefficient = .12) at a .05 significance level, as zero fell within the 95% confidence interval (Table 4.13). As a result, the null hypothesis was not rejected at a .05 significance level. This finding deviates from the work of Bordia et al. (2008) that found support for a direct causal link between breach and revenge cognitions. Although the causal link was not significant at a 5% significance level, it was significant at a .10 level., indicating a possible trend for a positive significant causal relationship between PCB and RC.

***Hypothesis 7*: RC has a significant positive effect on CWB**

The hypothesised positive relationship between *revenge cognitions* (RC) and *counterproductive work behaviour* (CWB) was found to be statistically significant (PLS path coefficient .12) at a .05 level, as zero did not fall within the 95% confidence interval (4.13). As a result, the null hypothesis was rejected. This finding is consistent with that of previous research linking RC and CWB (Bordia et al., 2008; Zhao et al., 2007). Accordingly, it can be concluded that RC has a positive causal effect on CWB. Stated differently, when employees experience strong negative emotions such as frustration, anger and disappointment due to a breach in the psychological contract, they are likely to experience revengeful thoughts towards their employer, which in turn motivates engagement in counterproductive work behaviours as an attempt to restore justice.

***Hypothesis 8:* SC has a significant negative effect on CWB**

The hypothesised negative relationship between *self-control* (SC) and *counterproductive work behaviour* (CWB) was found to be statistically significant (PLS path coefficient -.43) at a .01 level, as zero did not fall within the 95% confidence interval (as seen in Table 4.13). As a result, the null hypothesis was rejected. This finding is supported by previous research (Bordia et al., 2008). Therefore, it can be concluded that SC has a negative causal effect on CWB. In other words, the higher an employee's level of self-control, the less likely they will engage in counterproductive work behaviours. Conversely, the lower an employee's level of self-control, the more likely they will engage in counterproductive work behaviours.

***Hypothesis 11*: EE has a significant positive effect on RC**

The hypothesised positive relationship between *employee entitlement* (EE) and *revenge cognitions* (RC) was found to be statistically significant (PLS path coefficient -.12) at a.01 (Table 4.13). Consequently, the null hypothesis was rejected. This finding broadly supports the work of other studies in this area linking EE and RC (Westerlaken et al., 2011). Accordingly, it can be deduced that EE will have a positive causal effect on RC. Simply put, employees high in employee entitlement will experience desires for revenge when they feel that they have been wronged or unfairly treated.

4.7.4 Evaluation and interpretation of the mediating hypotheses

A mediating variable intercedes between two related latent variables. More specifically, a change in the exogenous latent variable results in a change in the mediating variable, which in turn, results in a change in the endogenous latent variable (Hair et al., 2017). To corroborate the mediating mechanism underlying the cause-effect relationship between the exogenous and endogenous latent variable, the paths between the exogenous latent variable and the mediating variable (indirect effect), the mediating variable and the endogenous latent variable (indirect effect) and the path between the exogenous and endogenous latent variable (direct effect) must be statistically significant.

***Hypothesis 6*: PCV has a significant mediating effect on the relationship between PCB and RC**

Based on the Sobel test results (Table 4.14), the mediating relationship is statistically significant ($p < .01$). This finding was substantiated by the results of the PLS path modelling analysis (bootstrapping). As confirmed in the previous section, the cause-effect relationships between PCB and PCV (PLS path coefficient = .65), and PCV and RC (PLS path coefficient = .26) were found to be statistically significant. As such, both paths from independent variable

to mediator and from mediator to dependent variable is significant. However, the direct cause-effect relationship between PCB and RC was not found to be statistically significant (PLS path coefficient = .012) at .05 (Table 4.13). Simply put, the indirect effects were found to be statistically significant and the direct effect was found to be statistically not significant. According to Hair et al. (2017), this situation in the mediation analysis is referred to as full mediation or indirect-only mediation. When full mediation occurs, the mediating variable fully explains the cause-effect relationship between the independent and dependent variable. Therefore, it can be concluded that PCV has a significant mediating effect on the relationship between PCB and RC resulting in the null hypothesis being rejected. Therefore, a breach in the psychological contract evokes strong negative emotions (frustration, anger), which in turn predicts revengeful thoughts and attitudes. This finding is consistent with previous research (Bordia et al., 2008; Matthijs Bal, De Lange, Jansen, Van, & Velde, 2008; Restubog et al., 2015; Suazo, 2009; Zhao et al., 2007).

Table 4.14

Sobel Test for Mediation

Path	Independent variable	Mediator	Dependent variable	p-value	95% lower	95% upper	P-value from T-test
PCB->PCV->RC	PCB	PCV	RC	.01	.07	.23	0**
EE->RC->CWB	EE	RC	CWB	.01	.01	.05	0**

Notes: ** p < .01, PCB->PCV->RC = Psychological contract violation (PCV) has a significant mediating effect on the relationship between Psychological contract breach (PCB) and Revenge cognitions (RC); EE->RC->CWB= RC has a significant mediating effect on the relationship between Employee entitlement (EE) and Counterproductive work behaviour (CWB)

Hypothesis 12*: *RC* has a significant mediating effect on the relationship between *EE* and *CWB

With reference to the mediating effect of *revenge cognitions* (RC) in the employee entitlement (EE) - *counterproductive work behaviour* (CWB) relationship, the Sobel test revealed a significant mediating effect. Similarly, the PLS path modelling analysis found the cause-effect relationships (indirect effects) between EE and RC (PLS path coefficient = .12), and RC and CWB (PLS path coefficient = .12) to be statistically significant (Table 4.13). As the direct cause-effect relationship between EE and CWB was not found to be statistically significant (PLS path coefficient = .09) at a .05 significance level, a full mediating effect of RC in the EE-CWB relationship was concluded. These results suggest that employees with a high sense of entitlement are more likely to experience revenge cognitions when a breach in the psychological contract is perceived and these revenge cognitions, in turn, predict engagement in retaliatory behaviours (CWB).

4.7.5 Evaluation and interpretation of the moderating hypotheses

The structural model comprised two interaction terms. To determine whether the moderating variables (interaction term) had a significant moderating effect on the hypothesised relationships, two procedures were followed, namely the univariate test for moderation and PLS path modelling analysis which indicated whether the path coefficient of the interaction was significant (Hair et al., 2017). The univariate test for moderation focuses on three variables, namely the independent, moderator and dependent variables. The purpose of the test is to ascertain whether R^2 increases significantly when the interaction term is included in the relationship between the independent and dependent latent variables. Table 4.16 shows the results of the univariate test for moderation, the R^2 change, and p-values value which were used to determine whether significant moderating effects exists in the proposed relationships. Whereas, Table 4.15 provides the path coefficients of the interaction terms' effect on the dependent variable. The path coefficient was considered statistically significant where $p < .05$ at the 95% confidence interval. The bootstrapping procedure facilitated this assessment. Should the value zero fall within the confidence interval, the moderating effect was concluded to be not statistically significant. Conversely, should the value zero not fall within the confidence interval, the path coefficient estimate is statistically significant.

***Hypothesis 9*: SC has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between RC and CWB**

***Hypothesis* 13: EE has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between PCB and CWB**

Table 4.15

Path Coefficients for the Moderating Effects

Paths/Relationships	PLS path coefficient	95% lower	95% upper	Significant from CI	P-value from T-test
PCB*EE -> CWB	.02	-.07	.12	No	.75
RC*SC -> CWB	-.09	-.18	.06	No	.15

Notes: PCB*EE = The moderating effect of employee entitlement (EE) on the causal relationship between psychological contract breach (PCB) and counterproductive work behaviour (CWB); RC*SC = The moderating effect of self-control (SC) as a moderator on the causal relationship between revenge cognitions (RC) and counterproductive work behaviour (CWB). Both moderating effects were modelled as additional separate latent variables in the model, which are referred to as interaction terms.

The results in Table 4.15 demonstrate that the path coefficients between the interaction terms and the dependent variable (CWB) were both found to be not statistically significant. Therefore, the moderating effect of employee entitlement (EE) on the causal relationship between *psychological contract breach* (PCB) and *counterproductive work behaviour* (CWB) was found to statistically not significant in this study. Consistently, the univariate test for

moderation also found the moderating effect of EE in PCB-CWB relationship to be not statistically significant (p = .54). This finding may possibly be attributed to the exploratory nature of the employee entitlement construct and the less than acceptable model fit obtained in the CFA.

In a similar fashion, the moderating effect of *self-control* (SC) on the causal relationship between *revenge cognitions* (RC) and *counterproductive work behaviour* (CWB) were found to be statistically not significant. This finding contrasts with previous research that found support for the moderating role of self-control in the RC-CWB relationship (Bordia et al., 2008). Conversely, the univariate test for moderation found the moderating effect of SC in the RC-CWB to be statistically significant, where p < .02. It is however important to note that while the PLS path modelling approach analyses the interaction term together with all the other causal relationships within the model, the univariate test for moderation only analyses the interaction term in relation to the independent and dependent variable. As such, the PLS path modelling analysis is regarded with greater accuracy and used in our interpretation. Therefore, from this current dataset, SC did not have a moderating effect on the relationship between RC and CWB. Although a positive causal relationship was found for the SC-CWB relationship, no support was found SC as a moderator in the RC-CWB relationship. Put differently, employees' level of self-control did not influence the extent to which employees would act upon their desires for revenge and subsequent engagement in counterproductive work behaviours as hypothesised.

Table 4.16

Univariate Test for Moderation

Path	Independent variable	Moderator	Dependent variable	P-value	Interaction coefficient	F- to remove
PCB->EE->CWB	PCB	EE	CWB	.54	.14	.38
RC->SC->CWB	RC	SC	CWB	.02	-.41	5.44

Notes: CWB = Counterproductive work behaviour; PCB = Psychological contract breach; EE = Employee entitlement; RC = Revenge Cognitions; SC = Self-control; PCB->EE->CWB = The moderating effect of *employee entitlement (EE)* on the causal relationship between *psychological contract breach (PCB)* and *counterproductive work behaviour (CWB); RC->SC->CWB* = The moderating effect of *self-control (SC)* as a moderator on the causal relationship between *revenge cognitions (RC)* and *counterproductive work behaviour (CWB).*

4.8 Chapter summary

The objective of this chapter was to present and discuss the statistical results of the analyses that were conducted for this research study. Firstly, an item analysis was conducted on each subscale of each measuring instrument to determine the psychometric integrity and soundness of the indicator variables (items) used in the measuring instruments. All the items indicated acceptable internal consistency which was corroborated by acceptable average

inter-item correlations. Together these results supported the retention of all the original items that formed part of the composite survey. Next, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to validate the measurement models by assessing the construct validity and reliability of the measuring instruments. Four separate measurement models were validated including the counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) measurement model, the self-control (SC) measurement model, the employee entitlement (EE) measurement model, and the psychological contract breach, psychological contract violation and revenge cognitions (PCB-PCV-RC) measurement model. The construct validity was determined by evaluating the RMSEA value, Goodness-of-fit index (GFI) and the adjusted GFI. Convergent validity was assessed by evaluating the factor loadings, average variance extracted and the construct reliability. The CWB-, SC-, and PCB-PCV-RC measurement models demonstrated acceptable model fit and thereby substantiating the existence of the proposed relationships between the indicators and the respective underlying latent variable. Conversely, the CFA results returned inadequate model fit for the EE measurement model. To gain further clarity an EFA was conducted, which however did not provide useful information. Despite this limitation, the indicator variables in the EE measurement model displayed acceptable Cronbach alphas and the composite reliability.

After the CFA, the outer (measurement) model was validated using PLS path modelling. As per the qualifying criteria, the composite reliability indicated acceptable indicator reliability, the average variance extracted (AVE) and the standardised outer loadings confirmed convergent validity and the heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlations showed satisfactory discriminant validity.

With the exception of the employee entitlement measurement model, the results of the confirmed satisfactory reliability and validity of the measurement models and thereby providing the researcher with the green light to validate the inner (structural) model by evaluating and interpreting the path coefficients and the proposed hypotheses (including main, moderating and mediating effects). From the 12 hypotheses formulated in this study, seven were supported. Chapter 5 will contain a discussion of the evaluation of the proposed hypotheses, an outline of the managerial implications of this study, the limitations of this study together with recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It is becoming increasingly difficult to ignore entitlement perceptions as a pressing issue in contemporary organisations. Despite its omnipresence, empirical research on employee entitlement attitudes and perceptions are scant and a clear definition of employee entitlement is still lacking (Westerlaken, et al., 2011). Due to its implications in the workplace, there has been an increasing interest in employees' entitlement perceptions in recent years. Within the limited research, several studies have focused on the negative outcomes and behaviours associated with high, unjustified entitlement perceptions, including increased aggressive behaviours (Campbell et al., 2004), conflict with supervisors (Harvey & Martinko, 2009), and co-worker abuse (Harvey & Harris, 2010). Furthermore, as entitled employees believe that they have an automatic right to favourable outcomes in the employment relationship, the interdependent nature of the relationship between the psychological contract and employee entitlement perceptions is evident (Naumann et al., 2002).

The purpose of this study was to review recent research on employee entitlement and to examine the role of employee entitlement in the relationship between psychological contract breach (PCB) and counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) by testing a proposed structural model. In other words, when a breach in the psychological contract occurs (real or imagined) does the level of employee entitlement influence the extent to which an employee would engage in CWBs? To examine the role of employee entitlement on CWBs when a breach in the psychological contract occurs, we extended the Bordia et al.'s (2008) model to include employee entitlement. To enhance understanding of the constructs in the proposed model, the study commenced with an extensive literature review. A theoretical argument derived from the literature review culminated in the proposed relationships amongst the constructs. To operationalise the constructs, the most applicable measures were selected, and the data collected from a sample of employees were analysed according to research design.

The next section provides a discussion of the results pertaining to the proposed relationships in the model.

5.1 Discussion of results and future recommendations

The study was guided by the research question, "How does employee entitlement influence CWB when a breach in the psychological contract is perceived in a South African context? In attempting to answer this question, Bordia et al.'s (2008) PCB-CWB mediation model was partially replicated. Bordia and colleagues found support for a model which included the cognitive (psychological contract breach), affective (psychological contract violation) and motivational (revenge cognitions) variables underpinning the engagement of CWB. Additionally, dispositional self-control was included as a self-regulatory mechanism influencing whether an employee will decide to engage in CWB or not. An in-depth discussion of the results reported in Chapter 4 follows, including proposals for avenues of future research which are intertwined in this discussion.

Consistent with Robinson and Bennett's (1997) interactive model of determinants of CWB and the work of Bordia et al. (2008), it appears that negative emotions such as anger, frustration, betrayal, and mistrust are the likely results of a breach in the psychological contract (real or perceived). These negative emotions are followed by a desire for revenge to restore equity or used as a mechanism through which pent up negative emotions can be released, and eventually culminating in the engagement behavioural outcomes such as *CWBs.* As such, the results support the assertion that *psychological contract breach* motivates engagement in *CWBs* through a causal chain of events, supporting the mediating roles of *psychological contract violation* and *revenge cognitions*. In addition to the theoretical implications, the mediating role of *psychological contract violation* provides further support for the technical distinction between *psychological contract breach* and *psychological contract violation*, corroborating the findings of previous studies (Bordia et al., 2007; Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Zhao et al., 2007).

Contrary to expectations, this study did not find support for the direct relationship between *psychological contract breach* and *CWBs*. Bordia et al. (2008) also reported an absence of this direct relationship, which was attributed to the long chain of mediating variables between *psychological contract breach* and *CWBs*, and due to the fact, that in their study, facet measures were used to operationalise *psychological contract breach* rather than a global measure. In light of the influence the type of measure used may have, a global measure was employed in this study. Nevertheless, evidence, once again, did not support a direct relationship between psychological contract breach and CWB. Another possible explanation for the lack of direct effect could be due to not controlling for covariates such as age, gender, tenure and social desirability, which is regarded as a limitation of this study. That considered, Bordia et al. (2008) did include these covariates in their model but found the same result. As

a result, it is possible that the most likely explanation for this finding might be due to the number of mediating variables in this relationship.

Robinson and Bennett's (1997) theory further posits that not every inclination to engage in *CWBs* is acted upon, as employees' level of *self-control* may influence the decision to engage in *CWBs* or not. As predicted, the results showed that employees high in *self-control* are less likely to engage in *CWBs* and employees low in *self-control* are more likely to engage in *CWBs.* This finding is supported by previous studies (Bordia et al., 2008; Zhao et al., 2007), and thus augments our current understanding of the role of *self-control* in this regard. However, even though the univariate test for moderation indicated a possible significant trend for the moderating effect of *self-control,* the results from the path analysis did not support the moderating effect of *self-control* (SC) in the *revenge cognitions-CWB* relationship and therefore contradicting Bordia et al. (2008) findings. This finding suggests that while employee's desires for *revenge* motivates decisions to retaliate through engaging in *CWBs*, this decision was not influenced by their level of *self-control*. This rather contradictory result may be due to exploring dispositional *self-control* in isolation and not considering the contextual factors, such as perceived aggressive work culture, which have been found to influence whether employees would act on their desires for *revenge* (Restubog et al., 2015).

Drawing on social information processing theory Salancik and Pfeffer (1978) and Restubog et al. (2015) argued that employees are more likely to act on desires for *revenge* stemming from *psychological contract violation* and engage in *CWBs* when their levels of *self-control* was low, *and* they perceived their organisational culture to be aggressive. Indeed, their findings supported the role of situational factors such as the organisation's culture played in how employees react to a breach in the psychological contract. It is worthwhile for future research to explore the role of organisational culture in the psychological contract dynamics in a South African context. In addition to organisational culture, another factor that may be relevant to the psychological contract nomological network is work engagement.

The job-demands resources model of work engagement (JD-R model) (Bakker & Demerouti's, 2008, is one of the most frequently used models to explain work engagement (Schaufeli & Taris, 2013). The model assumes that employees' health and wellbeing is determined by a balance between negative (demands) and positive (resources) characteristics of the job. The JD-R model is grounded in the assumption that every job has its own unique work characteristics related to job stress and employee well-being. These work characteristics encompass job demands and job resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2011). The job and personal resources are the main antecedents of engagement. Additionally, the higher the job demands the greater the importance of these resources (Bakker, 2011). Drawing on the Job-Demands resources Model of work engagement (JD-R model) (Bakker & Demerouti's, 2008),

psychological contract fulfilment (which can be seen as the opposite of psychological contract breach), can be regarded as a job resource. Bakker, Demerouti and Verbeke (2004) define job resources as '*those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that reduce job demands and the associated psychological costs'* (p. 86). Several authors have hypothesised that psychological contract fulfilment as a job resource is likely to motivate work engagement. Indeed, Bal, De Cooman and Mol (2013) found that psychological contract fulfilment increases work engagement and positive employee attitudes towards their jobs. Consequently, future studies are encouraged to investigate the role of work engagement in the model.

Turning now to the role of *employee entitlement* (EE). Consistent with planned behaviour theory (Ajzen, 1991), which posits that individual differences such as *employee entitlement* and attitudes (desires for revenge) inform intentions that inevitably influence behaviours. The results of this study indicated that employee entitlement is a significant predictor of desires for revenge, which is consistent with the results of previous research (Westerlaken, et al., 2011). Furthermore, that since their student sample had limited work experience, Westerlaken et al.'s (2011) recommended that their study be replicated in an organisational setting with older, more experienced sample. As a result, this study investigated the relationship between *entitlement* and *desires for revenge* in an organisation with a more experienced sample. In addition, this study extended their work by empirically testing the mediating role of *revenge cognitions* in the *Employee entitlement-CWB* relationship and found support for this mediating role. Consequently, these results showed that high levels of *entitlement* motivate desires for *revenge,* which, in turn, may lead to engagement in *CWBs* when entitled individuals feel that they did not get the treatment or rewards they felt they deserved.

However, these findings must be interpreted with caution because contrary to expectations, when validating the Measure of Employee Entitlement (MEE) (Westerlaken et al., 2016) the results of the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) returned less than satisfactory model fit thereby implying a possible lack of construct validity. Given that *employee entitlement* as a construct is still in its infancy, besides the developer, Westerlaken et al. (2016), only one other study used the Measure of Employee Entitlement (MEE) to operationalise workplace entitlement and reported acceptable model fit (Lawlor, 2017). Three possible explanations for this finding and the consequence thereof are discussed under the limitations of this study.

Due to the lack of construct validity, it is not surprising that even though entitled individuals often develop unreasonable expectations and are more likely to perceive a contract breach, the results in this study showed a weak correlation (r = .17) between *employee entitlement* and *psychological contract breach*. Similarly, the moderating effect of *employee entitlement* in the *psychological contract breach – CWB* relationship was not supported. In accordance with

self-attributional theory (Zuckerman, 1979) and the work of Harvey and Martinko (2009), it was hypothesised that an employee's level of *employee entitlement* will influence the extent to which a breach in the psychological contract is perceived, which in turn will determine the extent to which the employee will engage in *CWBs.* Simply put, employees with a greater sense of entitlement are more likely to perceive that the psychological contract has been breached and subsequently engage in retaliatory behaviours. Inversely, the lesser the level of employee entitlement, the lesser the extent to which the breach is perceived which in turn will lead to reduced engagement in retaliatory behaviours. Although this interaction can be substantively argued, the present study did not find support for the moderating role of *employee entitlement*.

Besides the lack of construct validity, another likely cause for the findings could relate to the work environment. Since employee entitlement is conceptualised as a situationally activated trait in this study, the respondents' work environment may not induce perceptions of entitlement and thus contribute to low entitlement in the sample. For example, instead of remunerating employees on a non-contingent basis, employees are rewarded and remunerated based on their contributions and performance.

Alternatively, due to the exploratory nature of the employee entitlement construct in the literature, it is possible that other pertinent factors were not considered in this study. For example, a recent Canadian study found that individuals high on *entitlement* are likely to have a negative perception of distributive and procedural justice (i.e. organisational justice) and when employees have a greater sense of injustice they are less likely to be engaged in their work (Lawlor, 2017). Therefore, future studies should investigate the role of organisational justice and work engagement in the *employee entitlement* nomological network and establish whether work engagement can act as a buffer to *entitlement* perceptions.

Taken together, the results of this study support the idea that significant workplace events, such as a breach in the psychological contract, impacts the emotions and attitudes of employees and ultimately leads to counterproductive work behaviours. Contrary to expectations, the validation of the employee entitlement measure did not return acceptable results. However, the study did shed light on the employee entitlement construct and lay the groundwork for future studies on entitlement in South African workplaces.

5.2 Managerial implications

The current study highlights the importance of industrial psychologists, HR practitioners and managers effective management of the implicit psychological contract. This will not only avoid costly negative outcomes associated with a breach but will also alter employees' unrealistic expectations and entitlement attitudes. Various interventions can be targeted at any point

during the sequence of causal events underlying a breach in the psychological contract before it results in *CWBs*. However, as the proverb states “prevention is better than cure”. To this end, industrial psychologists, HR practitioners and managers can effectively manage the dynamic psychological contract by ensuring that consistent, authentic and unambiguous communication takes place during regular engagement sessions with all employees at every level of the organisation. Should employees feel aggrieved due to a breach in the psychological contract, employees should be furnished with possible explanations for the breach in a candid manner and provide alternative suggestions to remedy the situation (Bordia et al, 2008). Effective leaders/ managers should regularly engage employees and provide support in a caring manner and provide aggrieved employees with the opportunity to vent their pent-up anger and frustration and take responsibility for their own role should the employees’ aggression be directed towards the manager. Moreover, a recent study found emotional intelligence to buffer the effects of psychological contract breach on psychological contract violation and counterproductive behaviours (Balogun, Oluyemi, & Afolabi, 2018). Consequently, possible interventions could include emotional intelligence workshops that can be conducted throughout the organisation to aid employees and leadership to regulate and manage their own and others’ emotions with greater efficacy.

During the recruitment phase when vetting candidates, recruiters can include an emotional intelligence assessment when the role requires teamwork, managing and leading others, or is client focused. Similarly, an entitlement assessment can be included in the selection test battery to gauge candidates’ level of entitlement (Lee et al, 2017), humility and willingness to contribute to the effectiveness of the organisation. With regard to self-control, recruiters should not only select individuals based on their high level of self-control but also ensure person-job fit (Restubog et al., 2015). In addition, recruiters should be cognisant of rewarding past behaviour and credentials in the hope of future performance at the outset of the employment relationship as this may lead to feelings of distinction and perceived deservingness, which sets high expectations of rewards. Consequently, should these expectations not be met, the employee may feel that the psychological contract has been violated and that they have been wronged (Fisk, 2010). Therefore, new employees should be given the opportunity to “prove” themselves and this should be apparent from regular employee performance reviews conducted by management.

In general, HR practitioners and remuneration specialists must ensure that remuneration and rewards are contingent on performance. When remuneration and rewards do not distinguish between poor, mediocre and exceptional performance, reciprocity in the employment relationship may be diminished. Hence, poor or average employees might feel that they do not have to work as hard as the exceptional performers because rewards are awarded equally.

This situation may, therefore, increase feelings of deservingness and unrealistic high expectations of reward. Moreover, when conducting performance reviews, management should ensure constructive and accurate feedback and avoid providing overly lenient performance as this too have the potential to foster high entitlement levels (Fisk, 2010). Should management or leaders struggle with conducting "tough conversations" with their subordinates, industrial psychologists and HR practitioners can assist with leadership coaching to improve their effectiveness in this regard.

Furthermore, industrial psychologists and HR practitioners can develop programmes which encourage employees to take responsibility for their actions and support behaviours which fosters team cohesiveness and thereby counteract entitlement attitudes. Additionally, leadership must ensure that they do not model entitlement behaviours but rather demonstrate open and honest conversations with staff which encourages transparency, fosters trust and thereby offsets entitlement perceptions.

5.3 Limitations of the study

One of the inherent limitations of this study includes the overreliance on self-report measures, which may have resulted in common method and response bias. Therefore, future studies on *CWBs* should consider various sources (i.e. colleagues or line manager) of measurement. Additionally, when studying psychological contracts and CWBs, controlling for covariates such as gender, age and tenure may also confound the data (Bradfield & Aquino, 1999). Previous research has suggested that men are more inclined to engage in deviant behaviour at work (Spector & Zhou, 2013) and tend to demonstrate greater levels of vengeful attitudes in comparison to their female counterparts (Aquino, Tripp, & Bies, 2006). Whereas, older employees were found to be less inclined to engage in CWB as compared to the younger employees (Pletzer, Oostrom, & Voelpel, 2016). Furthermore, older employees tend to be more honest in comparison to their younger colleagues (Lewicki, Poland, Minton, & Sheppard, 1997). With reference to tenure, it is more likely that employees with less tenure will engage in property deviance (i.e., theft), in comparison to employees with longer tenure (Hollinger, Slora, & Terris, 1992). Furthermore, previous research found that long-term employees are more likely to feel entitled (Roehling, Roehling, & Boswell, 2010). Consequently, to ensure unambiguous findings, future studies should control for these covariates contributing to the unwanted variance in the model.

Equally noteworthy, when studying topics of a sensitive nature, such as *CWBs* and *employee entitlement,* there is a tendency for respondents to under-report undesirable attitudes and behaviours and over-report attitudes and behaviours which are considered to be desirable according to social norms (Krumpal, 2013). As such, another limitation of this study is that

social desirability was not controlled for. With reference to the lack of construct validity found when validating the MEE, three possible explanations are suggested, including social desirability bias. The first explanation is the likelihood that respondents downplayed their self-evaluations resulting in social desirability bias. Social desirability refers to the tendency of respondents to present themselves in a favourable manner (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960). The likelihood of this occurring is reinforced by the fact that a midpoint (neutral) response option was included in the scale. Previous research has found that respondents are more likely to choose the midpoint option than express a socially undesirable response (Garland, 1991) when given the option. Accordingly, social desirability response bias may be confounding the validity of the data and therefore may have contributed to the lack of construct validity. Therefore, future research should control for social desirability bias when using the Measure of Employee Entitlement (MEE) to operationalise employee entitlement.

The second possible explanation for the lack of construct validity relates to the response category options of the Likert-type scale. Accurate measurement is not only a function of item wording but is also impacted by the response options provided for the items (Nadler, Weston, & Voyles, 2015). Hence, it is plausible that the lack of construct validity of the MEE may be attributed to the response style of the respondents when answering the entitlement items. Inconsistent with the original version a 6-point Likert-type scale, a 5-point scale was used to assess the self-reported employee entitlement perceptions; where 1 *strongly disagree*s, 2 *disagree*s, 3 is *neutral*, 4 agrees and 5 *strongly agree*s. A closer look at the data showed that when answering the entitlement items respondents were more inclined to opt for the neutral option indicating the possible presence of central tendency bias. Central tendency bias occurs when respondents avoid making an extreme response on a Likert-type scale which distorts the data and contribute to inaccurate findings (Nadler et al., 2015). Although, Lee and Paek (2014) found no difference in reliability and validity when comparing 4, 5, or 6-point Likert type response formats, we encourage future studies to use an even response rating scale to discourage respondents from choosing a neutral midpoint response (DeVellis, 2011; Nadler et al., 2015).

Since previously reported studies using the MEE were conducted in Australia and Canada, the third explanation for the lack of construct validity may be due to the fact that the measure was not adapted for use in South Africa. According to Foxcroft and Roodt (2013), it is vital that foreign assessments are investigated for equivalence and bias and are culturally adapted for local use to ensure valid and reliable results. Therefore, future research should further validate the MEE and ensure that it is culturally adapted prior to using it with a South African sample.

A further limitation is the cross-sectional nature of the study. Cross-sectional studies only provide a snapshot of the observable data of the sample at a specific point in time (Salkind,

2010). The present study is therefore limited in its ability to make unequivocal inferences about causality. To enhance the generalisability of these findings and to infer causality, it may be worthwhile to conduct a longitudinal study to ascertain whether *CWBs* (outcome) did in fact follow the hypothesised preceding events. Moreover, this study was conducted among employees from a public higher education institution. Further examination of the attribution of work environments on employees' level of entitlement is required and warrants replication in other public and private sectors, as well as union and non-unionised environments.

5.4 Conclusions

This thesis has provided a deeper insight into the interplay between psychological breach, psychological contract violation, revenge cognitions, self-control, employee entitlement and CWBs. Overall, it appears employee's perception of a breach in the psychological contract generates feelings of frustration, anger, betrayal, and mistrust, which arouses desires for revenge and this desire for revenge leads to engagement in CWBs. Furthermore, it seems that employees with excessive entitlement perceptions are more likely to perceive that they have been treated unfairly which motivates the desire for revenge and leads to engagement in retaliatory behaviours (CWB). Entitlement is a common complaint among managers and leaders. While some argue that it is a characteristic more prevalent amongst millennials, others argue that it is present among all generations and is a by-product of modern society. In comparison to non-entitled individuals, entitled employees are more likely to feel frustrated and stir tension among team members, especially when their expectations of deservingness are not met (Harvey & Martinko, 2009). Moreover, entitled employees demonstrate high levels of job dissatisfaction (Harvey & Martinko, 2009; Naumann et al., 2002) affecting the overall team morale and may even demonstrate aggressive and selfish behaviours (Campbell et al., 2004), and increased conflict towards their superiors (Harvey & Martinko, 2009). Other characteristics of entitled employees include, not taking responsibility (Harvey & Martinko, 2009), negative attitudes, being uncompromising, and complaining without offering any feasible solutions.

Consequently, entitlement is a real problem which fosters hostility within the work environment and impedes productivity and effectiveness. To survive this phenomenon, organisations need to tackle entitlement head on. However, due to its infancy, many answers about the entitlement attitudes in the workplace still remain unanswered. As a result, future studies aimed at uncovering the employee entitlement nomological network will contribute to the construct's theoretical development and practical implications for tackling entitlement in the workplace and further enhance our understanding of the entitlement virus.

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APPENDIX A

Informed consent form

STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

***Title of Research Project**:* Exploring the role of Employee entitlement on Counterproductive work behaviour

***Consent form addressed to**:* Organisational Employees

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by Roslynne Witten, from the Department of Industrial Psychology at Stellenbosch University. The purpose of gathering this information pertains to the completion of a master's thesis and obtaining valuable insight which will assist your organisation to appropriately manage and uphold the psychological contract they have with you. You were selected to participate in this study because you are a full-time employee at a South African organisation.

1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The aim of the research study is to explore the psychological contract and its implications when breached. The psychological contract refers to the unwritten understandings and informal obligations between an employer and its employees regarding their mutual expectations of how each will perform their respective roles.

2. PROCEDURES

If you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to complete an anonymous survey which should take about 10-15 minutes. The main goal of an anonymous survey is to get true and honest responses. All questions on a page need to be answered before moving on to the next page. Once you have completed the survey, the electronic system used by Stellenbosch University will record the data automatically. This is the full extent of your participation in the study.

3. POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

The potential risks and/or discomforts that could result from participating in this study include the time that is required to fill out the survey and the potential discomfort of having to evaluate yourself. You will be required to reflect on the extent to which you engage in counterproductive behaviours at work and the extent to which you feel that your employer

has or has not fulfilled its obligations to you as the employee. Additionally, a reflection on your expectations, beliefs and attitudes that you might have in relation to your job, is required. Due to the sensitive nature of these evaluations, you might feel the need to present yourself in an overly positive manner. However, you should understand that you will not be required to enter your name or any identifiable information on the survey. Therefore, your individual responses will not be linked to your identity. In addition, the data will only be available to the researcher. The data will only be utilised for research purposes and no consequences, positive or negative, will result from the findings. However, in the unlikely event that you experience any emotional distress during the completion of the survey, please be advised that you have the right to discontinue participation at any stage. Should you require further support, please contact ICAS at 0800 611 059.

4. POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

The information gathered from this survey will not only assist in our understanding of the relationships between employee engagement, the psychological contract and counterproductive work behaviours but will assist HR practitioners and leadership to foster greater engagement with you. Consequently, this research will benefit you, your organisation, your community, and society as a whole.

5. PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

As a token of appreciation for your participation in this study you will be given the chance to be entered into a draw to win 1 of 6 R500 Woolworths Vouchers. At the end of the survey, you will be asked if you would like to enter the lucky draw. By answering “yes” the current survey will close down and a new separate survey will open where you can enter your cellphone number only. This process will ensure that it is not possible to link your cellphone number to the completed survey and in so doing your information will remain anonymous. The draw will take place on 31 July 2018 and winners will be notified by email on or before 15 August 2018.

6. CONFIDENTIALITY AND ANONYMITY

Every effort will be made by the researcher to preserve your confidentiality and anonymity throughout this research. When completing the survey, please do not disclose your name or any other identifiable information. This is to ensure that your identity cannot be linked to your individual responses and in so doing ensuring that the responses to this survey are anonymous. Furthermore, confidentiality will be maintained by restricting access to the collected data only to the researcher [Roslynne Witten], which will be stored on a password-protected computer. Only the aggregate findings of this study will be distributed in an

unrestricted electronic thesis, as well as in an article published in an accredited scientific journal. The published data will not contain information that could directly identify you.

7. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

Participating in this study is voluntary. Even if you decide to be part of the study now, you may change your mind and withdraw from the study at any time without any consequences by simply closing the online survey during completion of the questionnaire. The researcher may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

8. IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact the researcher, Ms Roslynne Witten at 074 1877 621 or wittenros@gmail.com or her research supervisor, Ms Samantha Adams at 083 668 6527 or adamss@sun.ac.za.

9. RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, please contact Ms Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development at Stellenbosch University. By answering the following question below you are indicating that you have read and understood this consent form and agree to participate in this research study. Please print a copy of this page for your records.

I hereby consent to voluntarily participate in this study. I agree that my data may be integrated into a summary of the results of all the questionnaires without identifying me personally. I give consent that the data may be used for any further research studies. If you do not wish to participate in the research study, please decline participation by clicking on the "No, I decline" button.

APPENDIX B

Composite questionnaire

Listed below are statements related to your attitudes and behaviours in the workplace. Given that ***no personal or identifiable information will be collected*** and that your responses will remain ***strictly confidential***, please respond to these statements as honestly and truthfully as possible. There are no right or wrong answers.

How old are you?

What is your gender?

How long have you been employed by your company?

Please read each statement carefully and choose only **ONE** answer.

Workplace Deviance Scale (WDS) (19)

For each of the statements below, select the response that best characterises how often you engaged in the following behaviours in the past three months, where
1 = Never, 2 = rarely (less than 10% of the time), 3 = Sometimes (30% of the time), 4= often (50% of the time), 5 = Usually/Most of the time (80% of the time), 6 = Always

Interpersonal Deviance

1. Made fun of someone at work.
2. Said something hurtful to someone at work.
3. Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work.
4. Cursed at someone at work.
5. Played a mean prank on someone at work.
6. Acted rudely toward someone at work.
7. Publically embarrassed someone at work.

Organisational Deviance

1. Taken property from work without permission.
2. Spent too much time fantasising or daydreaming instead of working
3. Falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money that you spent on business expenses

4. Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace
5. Come in late to work without permission.
6. Littered your work environment
7. Neglected to follow your supervisor's/manager's instructions.
8. Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked.
9. Discussed confidential company information with an unauthorised person.
10. Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job
11. Put little effort into your work
12. Dragged out work in order to get overtime.

A Measure of Employee Entitlement (MEE) (18) □□

The statements below represent possible expectations, beliefs and attitudes that you might have in relation to employment and the workplace. Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements, where 1 = strongly disagree (0%), 2 = mostly disagree (20%), 3 = slightly disagree (40%), 4 = slightly agree (60%), 5 = mostly agree (80%), 6 = strongly agree (100).

Reward as a right

1. I should get a pay increase if I perform my job to a satisfactory level
2. I expect regularly pay increases regardless of how the organisation performs
3. I expect to be able to delegate tasks that I don't want to do
4. It is my employer's responsibility to set goals for my career
5. I expect a bonus every year
6. I expect regular promotions
7. I deserve to be paid more than others
8. Employees should be rewarded for average performance
9. I should have the right to demand work that is interesting to me

Self-focus

10. I expect to be able to take breaks whenever I want
11. I should be able to take leave whenever it suits me
12. My employer should accommodate my personal circumstances
13. It is the organisation's fault if I don't perform my job requirements
14. I deserve preferential treatment at work

Excessive self-regard

15. I believe I have exceptional skills and abilities
16. I only want to work in positions that are critical to the success of the organisation
17. Any organisation should be grateful to have me as an employee
18. I want to only work in roles that significantly influence the rest of the organisation

Psychological contract breach and Psychological contract violation

Consider the following statement and indicate your level of agreement, where 1 = strongly disagree (0%), 2 = mostly disagree (20%), 3 = slightly disagree (40%), 4 = slightly agree (60%), 5 = mostly agree (80%), 6 = strongly agree (100).

Psychological Contract Breach (5) □□

1. Almost all of the promises made by my employer during recruitment have been kept so far. (reversed).
2. I feel that my employer has fulfilled the promises made to me when I was recruited. (reversed)
3. So far my employer has done an excellent job of fulfilling its promises to me. (reversed)
4. I have not received everything promised to me in exchange for my contributions.
5. My employer has broken many of its promises to me even though I've upheld my side of the deal.

Psychological Contract Violation (4) □

6. I feel a great deal of anger towards my organisation.
7. I feel betrayed by my organisation.
8. I feel that my organisation has violated the contract between us.
9. I feel extremely frustrated by how I have been treated by my organisation.

Use the following scale to indicate your agreement level with each of the following statements, where 1 = strongly disagree (0%), 2 = disagree (15%), 3 = slightly disagree (25%), 4 = slightly agree (25%), 5 = Agree (75%), 6 = strongly agree (100%).

Revenge subscale of the Wade Forgiveness Scale (5) □

For questions on this page, please indicate your current thoughts and feelings about the person who recently offended or hurt you in the workplace. Use the following scale to indicate your agreement level with each of the following statements, where 1 = strongly disagree (0%), 2 = disagree (15%), 3 = slightly disagree (25%), 4 = slightly agree (25%), 5 = Agree (75%), 6 = strongly agree (100%).

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1. I'll make him/her pay.
2. I wish that something bad will happen to him/her.
3. I want him/her to get what he/she deserves.
4. I'm going to get even
5. I want to see him/her hurt and miserable.

Brief Self-control Scale (7) □□

Use the following scale to indicate your agreement level with each of the following statements, where 1 = strongly disagree (0%), 2 = disagree (15%), 3 = slightly disagree (25%), 4 = slightly agree (25%), 5 = Agree (75%), 6 = strongly agree (100%).

Impulse Control

1. I do certain things that are bad for me, if they are fun.
2. Pleasure and fun sometimes keep me from getting work done.
3. I can't stop myself from doing something, even if I know it is wrong.
4. I often act without thinking through all the alternatives.

Self-discipline

5. I am good at resisting temptation.
6. People would say that I have iron self-discipline.
7. I am able to work effectively toward long-term goals.

APPENDIX C

Item statistics for all the scales

Latent Construct	Cronbach's alpha and 95% CI: 0.91(0.89, 0.93) Summary for scale: Mean=11.8182 Std.Dv.=5.00808 Valid N:308 Standardized alpha: 0.92 Average inter-item corr.: 0.71					
	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	StDv. if deleted	Itm-Totl Correl.	Squared Multp. R	Alpha if deleted
PCB1(reversed)	9.46	16.59	4.07	0.83	0.81	0.89
PCB2(reversed)	9.43	16.6	4.07	0.84	0.83	0.88
PCB3(reversed)	9.31	16.1	4.01	0.83	0.76	0.89
PCB4	9.42	16.29	4.04	0.71	0.57	0.91
PCB5	9.66	16.14	4.02	0.72	0.59	0.91

Latent Construct	Cronbach's alpha and 95% CI: 0.95(0.93, 0.96) Summary for scale: Mean=8.61039 Std.Dv.=4.82368 Valid N:308 Standardized alpha: 0.95 Average inter-item corr.: 0.83					
	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	StDv. if deleted	Itm-Totl Correl.	Squared Multp. R	Alpha if deleted
PCV1	6.44	13.44	3.67	0.87	0.79	0.94
PCV2	6.48	12.87	3.59	0.93	0.87	0.92
PCV3	6.6	13.75	3.71	0.86	0.76	0.94
PCV4	6.32	13	3.61	0.86	0.74	0.94

Latent Construct	Cronbach's alpha and 95% CI: 0.91(0.87, 0.93) Summary for scale: Mean=7.62987 Std.Dv.=4.13841 Valid N:308 Standardized alpha: 0.92 Average inter-item corr.: 0.71					
	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	StDv. if deleted	Itm-Totl Correl.	Squared Multp. R	Alpha if deleted
RC1	6.16	11.28	3.36	0.84	0.77	0.87
RC2	6.19	11.1	3.33	0.84	0.75	0.87
RC3	5.74	10.32	3.21	0.63	0.4	0.93
RC4	6.2	11.55	3.4	0.82	0.72	0.88
RC5	6.23	11.67	3.42	0.81	0.71	0.88

Latent Construct	Cronbach's alpha and 95% CI: 0.73(0.64, 0.79) Summary for scale: Mean=9.24351 Std.Dv.=2.65297 Valid N:308 Standardized alpha: 0.76 Average inter-item corr.: 0.32					
	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	StDv. if deleted	Itm-Totl Correl.	Squared Multp. R	Alpha if deleted
CWB_I1	7.43	4.5	2.12	0.4	0.17	0.75
CWB_I2	7.92	5.18	2.28	0.6	0.39	0.67
CWB_I3	7.94	5.13	2.26	0.55	0.32	0.68
CWB_I4	8.08	5.47	2.34	0.54	0.34	0.68
CWB_I5	8.18	6.46	2.54	0.3	0.11	0.73

CWB_I6	7.81	5.07	2.25	0.45	0.25	0.7
CWB_I7	8.11	5.87	2.42	0.48	0.26	0.7

Latent Construct

Cronbach's alpha and 95% CI: 0.76(0.72, 0.80) Summary for scale: Mean=15.7500 Std.Dv.=3.77276 Valid N:308 Standardized alpha: 0.75 Average inter-item corr.: 0.20

	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	StDv. if deleted	Itm-Totl Correl.	Squared Multp. R	Alpha if deleted
CWB_O8	14.61	13.02	3.61	0.35	0.21	0.75
CWB_O9	13.85	10.21	3.19	0.54	0.34	0.73
CWB_O10	14.73	14.04	3.75	0.1	0.04	0.77
CWB_O11	14.03	10.11	3.18	0.61	0.46	0.72
CWB_O12	14.24	11	3.32	0.48	0.35	0.74
CWB_O13	14.65	13.11	3.62	0.36	0.22	0.75
CWB_O14	14.4	11.91	3.45	0.46	0.28	0.74
CWB_O15	14.41	11.31	3.36	0.48	0.32	0.74
CWB_O16	14.53	12.64	3.56	0.33	0.17	0.75
CWB_O17	14.72	13.77	3.71	0.26	0.14	0.76
CWB_O18	14.35	11.07	3.33	0.57	0.39	0.72
CWB_O19	14.73	13.96	3.74	0.16	0.06	0.77

Latent Construct

Cronbach's alpha and 95% CI: 0.72(0.66, 0.77) Summary for scale: Mean=8.11039 Std.Dv.=3.27673 Valid N:308 Standardized alpha: 0.73 Average inter-item corr.: 0.40

	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	StDv. if deleted	Itm-Totl Correl.	Squared Multp. R	Alpha if deleted
SC_I1	5.6	5.73	2.39	0.55	0.32	0.64
SC_I2	6.09	6.29	2.51	0.53	0.29	0.64
SC_I3	6.48	7.07	2.66	0.56	0.31	0.64
SC_I4	6.15	7.23	2.69	0.42	0.18	0.71

Latent Construct

Cronbach's alpha and 95% CI: 0.69(0.61, 0.75) Summary for scale: Mean=11.5260 Std.Dv.=2.42462 Valid N:308 Standardized alpha: 0.69 Average inter-item corr.: 0.43

	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	StDv. if deleted	Itm-Totl Correl.	Squared Multp. R	Alpha if deleted
SC_SD5	7.78	2.77	1.67	0.49	0.27	0.62
SC_SD6	7.96	2.73	1.65	0.6	0.36	0.45
SC_SD7	7.31	3.54	1.88	0.43	0.21	0.68

Latent Construct

Cronbach's alpha and 95% CI: 0.78(0.73, 0.81) Summary for scale: Mean=24.8799 Std.Dv.=6.25478 Valid N:308 Standardized alpha: 0.77 Average inter-item corr.: 0.28

	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	StDv. if deleted	Itm-Totl Correl.	Squared Multp. R	Alpha if deleted

PE_R1	20.94	33.15	5.76	0.35	0.21	0.77
PE_R2	21.73	31.15	5.58	0.48	0.29	0.75
PE_R3	22.46	32.55	5.71	0.41	0.23	0.76
PE_R4	22.89	33.64	5.8	0.37	0.17	0.77
PE_R5	21.81	28.98	5.38	0.56	0.44	0.74
PE_R6	21.92	29.31	5.41	0.64	0.54	0.73
PE_R7	22.27	31.45	5.61	0.5	0.31	0.75
PE_R8	22.74	32.73	5.72	0.4	0.2	0.76
PE_R9	22.29	32.05	5.66	0.44	0.29	0.76

Latent Construct	Cronbach's alpha and 95% CI: 0.69(0.63, 0.74) Summary for scale: Mean=11.6461 Std.Dv.=3.47650 Valid N:308 Standardized alpha: 0.69 Average inter-item corr.: 0.31					
	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	StDv. if deleted	Itm-Totl Correl.	Squared Multp. R	Alpha if deleted
PE_SF10	9.37	7.45	2.73	0.51	0.31	0.61
PE_SF11	8.94	6.81	2.61	0.58	0.39	0.57
PE_SF12	8.26	8.54	2.92	0.42	0.21	0.65
PE_SF13	9.85	8.98	3	0.41	0.23	0.66
PE_SF14	10.16	9.74	3.12	0.31	0.18	0.69

Latent Construct	Cronbach's alpha and 95% CI: 0.77(0.72, 0.81) Summary for scale: Mean=12.5065 Std.Dv.=3.33718 Valid N:308 Standardized alpha: 0.77 Average inter-item corr.: 0.46					
	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	StDv. if deleted	Itm-Totl Correl.	Squared Multp. R	Alpha if deleted
PE_ESR15	8.79	7.35	2.71	0.48	0.28	0.76
PE_ESR16	9.8	6.38	2.53	0.61	0.51	0.69
PE_ESR17	9.14	6.71	2.59	0.56	0.34	0.72
PE_ESR18	9.8	6.45	2.54	0.63	0.52	0.68

Notes: CWB = Counterproductive work behaviour; CWB_I = Interpersonal deviance subscale; CWB_O = Organisational deviance subscale; PCB = Psychological contract breach; EE = Employee entitlement; EE_ESR = Excessive self-regard subscale; EE_R = Reward as right subscale; EE_SF = Self focus subscale; r = reversed score; PCV = Psychological contract violation; RC = Revenge Cognitions; SC = Self-control; SC_I = Impulse control; SC_SD = Self-discipline; CI=Confidence interval; Std.Dv = Standard deviation; Corr = Correlation; Var if deleted = Variable if deleted; StDv. if deleted = Standard deviation if deleted.

APPENDIX D

Factor loadings of the psychological contract breach, psychological contract violation and revenge cognitions measurement model

Latent Variables	Item	Factor loading	SE	T-statistic
PCB	PCB1_r	0.93	0.02	42.47
PCB	PCB2_r	0.94	0.01	63.81
PCB	PCB3_r	0.95	0.01	65.06
PCB	PCB4	0.78	0.04	17.74
PCB	PCB5	0.84	0.04	23
PCV	PCV1	0.92	0.02	48.56
PCV	PCV2	0.98	0.01	128.81
PCV	PCV3	0.96	0.01	70.07
PCV	PCV4	0.92	0.02	58.87
RC	RC1	0.95	0.02	51.8
RC	RC2	0.95	0.02	44.37
RC	RC3	0.79	0.04	20.53
RC	RC4	0.95	0.02	44.01
RC	RC5	0.94	0.03	31.21

Notes: PCB = Psychological contract breach; PCV = Psychological contract violation; RC = Revenge cognitions; SE = Standard error; r = reversed item